University of Chester

Sport coaching in a community setting: How do community youth sport coaches' frame their role?

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Acknowledgements

The initial idea for this research dates back to the period when I was a sport coaching consultant with sports coach UK. It was based upon the premise that when I was observing coaches in the field, it was not always apparent that they understood the role that they were undertaking. Instrumental in getting me to investigate the subject in more detail were two people, my colleague at the time Paul Connolly and the CEO, the late Pat Duffy (subsequently Professor of Sport Coaching at Leeds Beckett University). They gave me the initial impetus to explore the ideas presented in this thesis.

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Abstract

Community youth sport coaching is identified as a coaching domain tasked with delivering complex social outcomes. When coaching in this context, individuals can be expected to operate in multiple settings, as well as engage with, and support numerous participant types. To meet participant needs coaches are required to have a wide range of skills and competencies. Current research suggests how coaching roles emerge and competencies develop are not always clear. Therefore, to understand coach identity fully; there is a requirement to explore the meanings, values and importance placed upon coach roles. Past research illustrates that the manner in which coaches' frame their role is instrumental to how they prioritise and organise critical moments of practice that warrant further reflection; thus allowing individuals to "construct the reality in which they function". This thesis intends to extend current knowledge on how sport coaches' define, shape and "frame" their role in community youth sport settings.

The research objectives are to: (a) examine the environmental conditions and personal views coaches' hold with regard to community youth sport in the UK and, (b) evaluate elements that influence their role and individual approach towards coaching. In essence, (c) evaluate how community youth sport coaches' shape and frame their role.

Three empirical studies were used to explore the research objectives. Study one adopted a quantitative research design on a sample of community youth sport coaches (N = 218). Using psychometric measures data were collected to explore coach motivation, coach efficacy and role complexity. Study two used a qualitative research design on a heterogeneous sample of coaches (N = 12) to evaluate: how coaches define their role, whether personal motives, behaviours, and past experiences influenced roles, and to explore any external factors that may have influenced roles. Study three used a holistic multiple case-study design to explore roles undertaken in the field. Distinct case-studies (N = 4) were used to evaluate coach roles and behaviours in different community youth sport contexts.

Results propose that community youth coach roles are framed through multiple boundaries. Using a model to illustrate the results, findings suggest that around the essential components of the coaching process, are a series of elements influential in the framing process. The first boundary comprises four related elements that form the basis of perceptions: coach motivation, cognitive actions, knowledge, and contexts. Surrounding these boundaries is a series of environmental and psycho-social elements that have the capacity to influence coach roles. Identified elements include: role identity, role stressors, and organisational pressure. Finally, the model proposes three interrelated mediating factors (ability to reflect, experiential learning, autonomy of practice) that influence the effectiveness of coaches' to deal with complex coaching issues. Findings will be discussed with recommendations for practice, coach development, and research identified.

Keywords: role framing, community youth sport, development, coach identity

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Abbreviations

CBAS – Coach Behavioural Assessment System

CBE – Character Building Efficacy

CES – Coach Efficacy Scale

CMS – Coach Motivation Scale

CPD – Continuous Professional Development

GSE – Game Strategy Efficacy

ICCE – International Council for Coaching Excellence

ME – Motivation Efficacy

MPRCQ – Modified Professional Role Complexity Questionnaire

PYD – Positive youth development

TCE – Total Coach Efficacy

TE – Technique Efficacy

UKCC – United Kingdom Coaching Certificate

Chapter 1

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Conceptualising sport coaching

Sport coaching has been described as a process in which the coach manages and supports individuals to develop motivation, well-being and improve performance (Carpentier & Mageau, 2014). Researchers have suggested that sport coaching has an important role to play in effecting positive outcomes for youth participants (Côté, Young, Duffy, & North, 2007; Lyle & Cushion, 2010; Smoll & Smith, 2002). Research and practice have identified that becoming an effective coach is an ongoing process that requires the development of a range of skills and attributes to be effective (Armour, 2010; Kidman & Hanrahan, 2011). As coaching roles have evolved to become more pedagogically, technically and socially orientated, it is proposed that coaches' require a wider set of competencies in order to support participant needs (Côté et al., 2007). With research recognising that distinction in the skills and attributes required is dependent on the context in which coaches operate (Abraham, Collins, & Martindale, 2006; Abraham & Collins, 2011; Kidman & Lombardo, 2010; Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006).

Recognised as an academic discipline in its own right, sports coach research has increased significantly (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004a; Rangeon, Gilbert & Bruner, 2012), with numerous theoretical, experiential and empirical approaches taken to explore the role of the coach (Cushion, 2007). Cassidy et al. (2008) proposed that sport coaching should not be defined as a purely technical pursuit, rather as an intellectual process which requires higher-order decision making skills to be effective. With Lyle and Cushion (2010) presenting evidence of an emerging consensus that "the practice of coaching can be described as a complex, dynamic, social, domain and context-dependant enterprise, with often contradictory goals and values" (p. xv).

However, as the body of knowledge has developed a lack of consistency concerning the conceptualisation and theorisation of coaching practice and its antecedents still exists (Cross & Lyle, 1999; Cushion, Armour, & Jones, 2006; Lyle & Cushion, 2010). Key challenges include; better understanding of coach-athlete interactions (Trottier & Robitaille, 2014), unclear interpretation of the dynamic or adaptive nature of sport coaching (Jones, Bowes, & Kingston, 2010; Saury & Durand, 1998), and limited investigation of contextual role differentiation (Côté, 2006; Côté & Gilbert, 2009; Trudel, 2006). As such, gaps between theory and applied practice remain in relation to understanding the dynamic role of the youth sport coach.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Community youth sport coaching has been identified as a domain in coaching that is tasked with "delivering complex social outcomes" (Cronin & Armour, 2013, p.2). Whilst operating as a community youth sport coach, individuals work within a plethora of settings, as well as engaging with, and supporting numerous participant types (Taylor & McEwan, 2012). Feltz, Helper, Roman, and Paiement (2009) acknowledged that coaches can be influential in developing youth sport, and have suggested that there is a need for greater understanding of the coach process related factors that influence youth development. As the role of a coach has been identified as dynamic (Cushion 2007; Gilbert 2009; Greric & Collins, 2013), there is a need for better understanding of inter and intra related factors that influence coaches' roles (Cassidy, 2010; Curzon-Hobson, Thomson, & Turner, 2003; Nash, Sproule, & Horton, 2008). With recognition of the macro and micro systems in which coaches' operate (Potrac & Jones, 2009). Despite the clear role youth sport coaches play in the development of participants, there is as Winchester, Culver, and Camiré (2013) suggest a need for further research into the distinct needs associated with youth coaching in community settings.

According to Nash et al. (2008) how coaching roles emerge and competencies develop are not always clear. Current coach research has suggested the influence of coach philosophies (Bouchet & Lehe, 2010; North, 2013a), the use of reflective practice (Knowles, Tyler, Gilbourne, & Eubank, 2006; Knowles, Gilbourne, Borrie, & Nevill, 2001) and role appraisal as important mediating factors (Huball & Robertson, 2004; Nash et al., 2008). Pope, Hall, and Tobin (2014) have recently presented the argument that in order to understand coach identity fully; there is a need to explore the meanings, values and importance placed upon coaching roles. Gilbert and Trudel (2001, 2004b) also argue that how coaches' frame their role is instrumental to how they prioritise and organise critical moments of their coaching practice that are deemed to warrant further reflection. Linked to experiential learning, reflective practice allows individuals to "construct the reality in which they function" (Schön, 1983, p. 310). This thesis intends to extend current knowledge on how sport coaches, define and "frame" their role in community youth sport settings.

1.3 Overall aim of the thesis

The overarching research objectives are to: (a) examine the environmental conditions and personal views coaches' hold with regard to community youth sport in the UK and, (b) evaluate elements that influence their role and individual approach towards coaching. In essence, (c) evaluate how community youth sport coaches' shape and frame their role.

Using quantitative methods and pre-validated psychometric questionnaires, study one aims to provide a baseline investigation of elements that may influence coach roles. Examples being motives coaches' elicit, how confident coaches' are in their ability to affect positive outcomes in others; and the interrelated processes involved in community youth coaching. Study two investigates through the use of a qualitative heterogeneous sample, issues associated with operating as a sport coach in community environments. Through thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), it aims to evaluate factors that coaches consider

when exploring their roles. Examples being the behaviours that coaches' exhibit, the knowledge, skills and attributes needed to be classified as "effective", as well as an understanding of the mechanisms associated with how coaches learn their "craft" (Werthner & Trudel, 2006).

The final study, adopts a holistic multiple case-method approach (Yin, 2009), to explore the realities of being a community youth sport coach in the UK. Drawing on the experiences, actions and behaviours of four coaches, the study explores their roles (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, 2004; Nash et al., 2008; Rodgers, Reade, & Hall, 2007).

From empirical studies and relevant literature, a synthesis of the data will be used to draw together the findings; to present a rationalisation of how youth sport coaches define and frame roles.

Chapter 2

Chapter 2: Review of literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explores literature associated with role formation and development. It proposes four concepts that underpin how coaching roles are defined in community youth settings. Firstly, the review examines Role Theory; a theory that explores how individuals' act out roles in social situations (Hindin, 2007). Secondly, as clear identification within any given or assumed role plays a prominent part in role acceptance and validity (Stets, 2005), Role Identity Theory will be examined. Role frames are proposed to define critical events that require attention and provide structure that represent "people's worlds", therefore, the third section explores how framing influences role development. With the review culminating in an analysis of how experiential learning underpins the process of role definition in sport coaching.

2.2 Role formation, development and identity

2.2.1 Role Theory

Research suggests that people take on roles depending on their environment, and in general, roles arise from status, or an assumed position or responsibility (Carron, Hausenblas & Eys, 2005; Guirguis & Chewning, 2005; Tubré & Collins, 2000). The theoretical basis of role theory is exploring the manner individuals' act out roles in social situations (Hindin, 2007). Guirguis and Chewning (2005) identify a range of concepts that form role theory; the label given to the topic (Biddle & Thomas, 1966). However, researchers suggest that the current body of knowledge is not a theory per se; but a series of concepts on the topic of roles (Cope et al., 2011; Eys, Schinke, & Jefery, 2007; Moxnes, 1999). Literature that examines role theory is expansive, with multiple theoretical standpoints identified (Biddle, 1986; Moxnes, 1999). With the most researched areas being organisational role theory; which

examines roles in task related organisations and cognitive role theory, which evaluates the connection between expectations and behaviour (Biddle, 1986).

Organisational role theory proposes that roles are associated with social positions that can be influenced by organisations, formal and informal groups and individual members within organisations (Guirguis & Chewning, 2005). As such, it forms the basis for research that involves team interactions (Richards & Templin, 2012). Based upon the seminal work of Katz and Kahn (1978) which views organisations as a system of roles, which suggest there is an interrelationship between role set members (e.g. peers, subordinates, superiors) and organisational tasks. With role incumbents expected to attain organisational role expectations. Adopting this approach, roles are based upon and developed through a series of evolving interactions that reflect organisational norms, attitudes and contextual cues (Tubre & Collins, 2000). According to Stone-Romero, Stone, and Salas (2003), role expectations can be influenced by role incumbent attributes (for example, values, physical abilities, knowledge, personality), expected organisational norms (for example, standardised working practices, employment law) and role holder behaviours. This perspective has strengths and limitations, a fundamental strength, is in the appreciation of interaction involved between parties. Whilst limitations include marginal recognition of role expectations or structural constraints associated with any given role (Stone-Romero et al., 2003).

Settles, Sellars, and Damas (2002) identify that from a cognitive role theory perspective, role expectations appear as norms, preferences, and beliefs. With behaviours and actions that role incumbent's exhibit based upon their perception of role importance or salience (Tubre & Collins, 2000). Studies have examined role perception and role actuality (Eatough et al., 2011), anticipatory role expectations (Guirguis & Chewning, 2005) and the effect of role taking on behaviour (Brumels, 2005; Brumels & Beach, 2008; Mobily, 1992). As with other approaches, aspects of cognitive role theory have been criticised. Guirguis and

Chewning (2005) argue that cognitive role theory focuses highly on the individual, whilst not effectively accounting for any environmental dimension or evolution of a role.

Distinct approaches to role development have also been hypothesised. Bales (1966, p.76) suggests "roles within any given group can be differentiated on the basis of the function they serve", with these functions affecting the effectiveness, integrity and stability of a group. The development of roles has been explored through the behaviours of the role incumbent (Bales & Slater, 1955; Hindin, 2007). Other research has focused on the communication patterns between the individual undertaking the role and those who develop expectations for that person (Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). According to Cope et al. (2011) emphasis on certain components has the potential to influence the role(s) an individual is likely to undertake. Therefore, understanding factors that mediate role formation and development have the capacity to positively influence dynamic relationships in, and between groups.

Researchers have examined factors that influence roles and explored the contextual nature of role formation from both task, and social perspectives (Hare, 2003; Moxnes, 1999). In different settings, key roles associated with effective working have been proposed, for example, Belbin (1981) identified nine roles in management, and while examining group roles in interactive sport environments; Eys (2000) identified eight responsibility types.

However, Eatough et al. (2011) argue that at present the conceptualisation of roles is too simplistic and fails to fully explore factors that influence an individual's role and the context or nature in which it takes place. For example: Is the role formal or informal? Is the position one of parity or hierarchical in nature? Guirguis and Chewning (2005) suggest rather than exploring role development in isolation, there is a need for a multi-faceted approach that explores "real world" role interactions more coherently. As in any given role, there are social

interactions, expected normative behaviours and organisational components; that can be stable or evolving.

Fischer, Hunter, and Macrosson (1998) suggest there is potential for individuals to undertake more than one role simultaneously. There is also acknowledgment that in any environment the presence of multiple roles may exist (for example, being a teacher, a mentor and a coach in a school). Studies also suggest that individuals' progress through a range of role responsibilities across a lifespan (Hare, 2003; Stoner, Perrewé, & Munyon, 2011; Tubre & Collins, 2000). Leading to complicated dynamics associated with the formation, framing, development and efficacy of formal or informal roles (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). Settles et al. (2002) identify that in everyday lives; people can perform a variety of roles and adopt multiple identities. As such, ideas associated with role development and formation are multi-layered and complex (Stoner et al., 2011).

2.2.2 Role concepts and stressors

According to Eatough et al. (2011) of concern to organisations is an understanding of variables that negatively influence performance. As such, role stressors are among the most commonly studied items in occupational health literature (Tubre & Collins, 2000; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). According to Tubre and Collins (2000) since the introduction by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) of their conceptualisation of organisational role dynamics, substantial research has explored the relationship between role ambiguity, role conflict and proposed correlates, for example satisfaction, role efficacy and commitment. Research has examined individual elements from a cognitive perspective, with concepts such as role clarity, role stress, and role conflict identified (Eatough et al., 2011; Settles et al., 2002); whereas, others examine more affective elements, for example, role satisfaction and role acceptance. As well as specific typologies associated with negative role connotations,

the term “role complexities” is also used to describe the overall concept of role stress and strain (Brumels, 2005).

Across academic fields, how role conflict mediates performance and task engagement is heavily researched (Fried et al., 2008; Gilboa et al., 2008). Eys et al. (2007) propose that role conflict is the presence of incongruent expectations, with Brumels and Beach (2008) suggesting role conflict, “the stress felt when an employee perceives role or job expectations as being contradictory or mutually exclusive” (p.374) can contribute to a lack of role satisfaction and possible disengagement. According to Kahn et al. (1964) different types of role conflict exist. These are defined as inter-role conflict and intra-role conflict, a component which has a number of sub-categories. With respect to intra-role conflict, various concepts have been posited (Brumels & Beach, 2008; Eatough et al., 2011). Intra-sender conflict happens when a role sender presents two or more inconsistent expectations for the focal person (Eys, Schinke, & Jefery, 2007). An example of this would be a coach asking an athlete to be more aggressive, then criticising their lack of judgment when giving away penalties. Inter-sender conflict is a common form of role conflict (Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Leberman & LaVoi, 2011), this form occurs when two role senders apply incongruent expectations on a single person regarding the same role. The final form of intra-role conflict, often referred to as person-role conflict occurs when expected role responsibilities conflict with the values or motivation of the individual. An example of this would be asking someone to perform a lower status role, or to perform a task to a standard below what an individual believes to be acceptable.

Inter- role conflict occurs when expectations from two or more roles interfere with one and other (for example, family-life and sport coaching), with research exploring inter-role conflict extensive. Settles et al. (2002) proposed that at that time, research tended to focus on the incongruent relationships between work and family roles. But argue that

research failed to take into consideration perceptual differences. For example, one person may see conflicting identities as separate roles, whereas another person may perceive them to be part of a wider role, an example being parenting and spousal roles seen as part of a wider family role. Studies by Fried et al. (2008), Gilboa et al. (2008), Eatough et al. (2011), and Tubre and Collins (2000) have used meta-analysis to explore relationships between role conflict, role ambiguity and role performance. Overall, it was established that role conflict and ambiguity had stronger relationships with focal person perceptions, for example, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Gilboa et al. (2008) argue stressors are evaluated against two criterions; whether the stressor is a "hindrance" or a "challenge" (p. 264). With the former being a threat to performance and the latter, a potential learning opportunity. According to Gilboa et al. (2008), role conflict is likely to have a higher challenge component than other stressors, as individuals strategise ways to meet contradictory demands. Role conflict research in sport domains has looked at work-family conflict (Dixon & Breuning, 2005; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Leberman & LaVoi, 2011), suggesting a relationship between organisational support, work-family conflict, and job satisfaction. One early exception, examined role conflict and role ambiguity in US high school sports coaches and trainers (Capel, 1986; Capel, Sisley, & Desertrain, 1987), this reported relationships between role conflict, role ambiguity and burnout. The results being consistent with later findings identified in other fields (Fried et al., 2008). Quantitative studies have examined the dynamic of the teacher-coach role in USA schools (Richards & Templin, 2013; Richards et al. 2016), presenting evidence of role conflict and ambiguity in this duel-role activity. It is suggested that this coach-teacher approach has some synergy with coach delivery models in the UK (Griggs, 2013), although direct comparisons need to be cautionary. Studies have also explored female coach role perceptions (Allen & Shaw, 2009), suggesting the need for coach autonomy, but also support from organisations to negate role conflicts. Studies exploring

employee satisfaction (Davies et al., 2005; Dixon & Warner, 2010) and coach commitment and turnover (Raedeke, Warren, & Granzyk, 2002), concluded that constraints and pressure in working practices, including role conflict had the potential to produce negative outcomes; for example, reduced motivation to coach, stress and ultimately disengagement. Overall, studies suggest that the consequences of role conflict include, but are not limited to psychological distress, poor health, decreased marital or job satisfaction, reduced job performance, and intent to leave one's profession (Brumels & Beach, 2008; Davies, Bloom, & Salmela, 2005; Stoner et al., 2011).

Eys et al. (2006), identify that a related conceptual term to role conflict is role overload. Brumels and Beach (2008), suggest that role overload occurs when an individual finds it difficult to perform professional responsibilities that are excessive, or they are given insufficient time to complete tasks. Hardy and Conway (1988) suggest role overload can occur when an individual is able to complete all tasks, but not to a level of competence that could be achieved if other tasks were not present. Role overload, can manifest itself in a variety of ways (Eys et al., 2006), with sub-categories reported as qualitative overload (responsibilities beyond capabilities) and quantitative (an excessive number of tasks). It must be noted, that although role conflict and role overload are conceptually similar, Eys et al. (2007, p. 103) have argued that "the former relates to incompatibility of responsibilities while the latter refers to an excessive amount of responsibilities".

The term role ambiguity refers to vague and unclear expectations set for employees (Katz & Kahn, 1978), where what is expected is unclear (Eatough et al., 2011). At the other end of a continuum is the term role clarity. With terminology relating to how positively, or negatively individuals' possess a clear understanding of their role (Eys et al., 2007). Research has concluded that role ambiguity has strong relationships with employee reactions, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, exhaustion and anxiety (Eys et al., 2007; Fried

et al., 2008; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). The role ambiguity plays in developing effective teams is heavily researched (Eys & Carron, 2001; Bray et al., 2005). Investigations have highlighted differing views across gender (Eys & Carron, 2001), the perceived competency of coaching style and leadership (Mellailieu & Juniper, 2006), with Bray et al. (2005) having also identified the need for clarity in communication and instruction to reduce role ambiguity. Suggesting this form of role stressor has implications for identities within any given group

Unlike cognitive role descriptors, affective role descriptors are associated with the concept of role efficacy. According to Bandura (1997, p. 3), role self-efficacy is defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute a course of action required to produce given attainment". Findings from studies have identified factors such as role acceptance, role satisfaction, but also negative elements (role incongruity) as influential from an affective perspective (Bosselut et al., 2012; Brumels & Beach, 2008). Due to a lack of conceptual clarity, role acceptance is an area in which limited research has taken place (Eys, Schinke, & Jeffrey, 2007). Eys et al. (2006, p. 246) have suggested that role acceptance provides a "dynamic, covert process that reflects the degree to which an individual perceives his or her expectations of role responsibilities as similar to and agreeable with, the expectations for role responsibilities by his or her role senders". Suggesting the need for appropriate links between perceived expectations of individuals and their roles. Research has identified a correlation between the acceptance of roles and role satisfaction (Rail, 1987; Killeya-Jones, 2005). In addition research suggests a relationship between context, individual characteristics and affective reactions between role acceptance/satisfaction; such as skill level, autonomy of practice and education (Guirguis & Chewning, 2005). Although sometimes deemed to be interchangeable terminologies, the role perceptions differ in relation to the focal point of a person's perception (for example, one might accept a role but not necessarily be satisfied with undertaking it). Eys et al., (2007) suggest role satisfaction

relates to the fulfilment any specific role gives to an individual. Research by Rail (1987) proposed four perceptually relevant factors that influenced how satisfied individuals were about specific roles. The first factor is related to how well an individual perceives their abilities and strengths are being utilised. The second factor identifies the relationship between the importance of any role in relation to group setting and context. The importance of receiving feedback and recognition for role efforts was highlighted as key facet of role satisfaction, as was the final perceptual element that of the degree of autonomy an individual is given to perform their role responsibilities.

Studies by Dixon and Sagas (2007) and Dixon and Warner (2009) concur with these suggestions, with the latter paper suggesting a multi-dimensional model in sport coaching, which proposes three areas that influence perceptions of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Industry standard features were identified as factors that coaches' expect to be present in any coaching role, for example supportive working practices, clear policies and goal expectations. Performance dependant features depict types of features that can lead to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction, depending on how well a coach perceives their expectations have been met (Dixon & Warner, 2009). Examples being, how much perceived autonomy coaches have in their role, loyalty to an organisation, inter and intra-team relations, and overall satisfaction. The final element, desirable features relates to items such as perceptions of recognition and supportive behaviours associated with a roles. For example, providing feedback and recognition of extra role responsibilities, or actions that go above and beyond expected norms. Therefore, understanding the impact of role satisfaction on individuals is seen to play an important part in role development (Davies et al., 2005; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Dixon & Warner, 2009; McQuade & Nash, 2015). With it being suggested that ensuring role satisfaction is specifically important for those who volunteer time and resources to sport (Hayton, 2016; Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Trussell, 2016). Linked to the concept of role

satisfaction and acceptance is role incongruity. A negative affective component, which Brumels and Beach (2008) have suggested occurs when either role obligations and personal skills or values are incompatible. Hardy and Conway (1988) identify this could occur if moral judgments, competence, ability or self-perception do not align with roles. Again, as with some other factors that influence the complex nature of role development, it is at present, an under researched area (Brumels, 2005).

Benson, Surya, and Eys (2014) identify that as roles occur on a formal or informal basis, with informal roles developing through tacit transfer of information. Literature has identified that roles develop in distinct ways (Cope et al., 2010, 2011; Loughhead, Hardy, & Eys, 2006), influence one and other and can be categorised (Benson, Surya, & Eys, 2014). Due to the nature of sport, multiple interactions are involved (both intra and inter-relational), therefore, the roles elicited by individuals influence and affect role related expectations (Bosselut et al., 2012). As such, the majority of research has examined the influence role elements have in team settings. Primarily studies examined role elements from the perspective of the athlete (Beauchamp et al., 2005; Eys, Loughhead, Bray, & Carron, 2009); with limited research exploring the influence and roles attributed to other individuals (Bosselut et al., 2012; Cope, Eys, Schinke, & Bosselut, 2010).

Practical implications for research into potential antecedents of role elements are interesting. As role clarity, role satisfaction and role efficacy may well have positive outcomes associated with communication (Bray et al., 2005; Cope et al., 2011) and provide better environments for all who engage in sport. It is suggested that there are currently research gaps. At present, the current body of literature appears to concentrate on coach-athlete interactions (Benson et al., 2014) and unlike other occupational literature does not acknowledge complex relationships that occur outside the primary role of the coach-athlete dyad (Jowett, Yang, & Lorimer, 2012). Therefore, there is a requirement to examine not just

role interaction from a coach-athlete perspective, but wider role interactions which occur in community youth sport coaching contexts. Therefore, it is suggested that in order for a coach to provide an effective autonomous supportive environment for participants (Gillet, Vallerand, Amoura, & Baldes, 2010; Rocchi, Pelletier, & Couture, 2013). Research is needed to examine role elements that may affect coach role efficacy wider than the traditional coach-athlete dyad (Jackson, Grove, & Beauchamp. 2010).

2.3 Role Identity Theory

Role identity theory is defined as an exploration of how individuals identify with specific roles (Stets & Burke, 2000). Based on work by McCall and Simmons (1978) at the core of an identity is the categorisation of the self as an occupant of roles (Stets & Burke, 2000). Stets (2005) has argued that clear identification within any given or assumed role plays a prominent part in role acceptance and validity. According to Stets (2005), role identity theory has two nuanced emphasises, which have led to contrasting approaches being hypothesised. One approach focuses on how social structure influences identity, and, in turn behaviours and cognitions (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Serpe, 1994), with the other approach placing greater emphasis on the internal dynamics of the self (Burke, 1991; Stets & Burke, 2000). According to Burke and Stets (2009), meanings associated with any role are fundamentally actions or cognitions that (practitioners) associate with that role. Pope et al. (2014) propose that formations of expectations are attained in two ways. Firstly, meanings can be formed through interaction with others in the form of environmental expectations, social norms and behaviours that become internalised by the individual (Burke & Stets, 2009). Secondly, meanings are formed through mindful- behaviours or cognitions (Pope et al. 2014). As such, Burke and Stets (2009) argue cognitions or behaviours reflect the internal characteristics, values, beliefs and principles a (practitioner) holds towards a role.

According to Burke and Stets (2000, 2009) and McCall and Simmons (1978) an important factor in role identity theory, is the premise that the self is comprised of multiple identities, each of which represents differing roles in life. Therefore, positive relationships exist between the degree to which individuals internalise roles and the likelihood of role engagement. According to Burke and Stets (2009, p. 38) "the energy, motivation, and drive that makes roles actually work require that individuals identify with, internalise and become the role". Consistent with this proposal is recognition that in life; individuals prioritise certain roles over others. Referred to as the identity prominence hierarchy (McCall & Simmons, 1978), it is concerned with how people perceive importance in specific roles. As such, identities higher in a person's hierarchy are more important, valued and central to whom that person is, and as such are enacted more frequently (Burke & Stets, 2009; Stets & Burke, 2000). Furthermore, identities viewed as high prominence will have an influence on feeling states (Burke & Stets, 2000, 2009; Pope & Hall, 2014a); with a fundamental antecedent being role commitment (McCall & Simmons, 1978; Pope & Hall, 2014a; Stets, 2005). Studies have explored identity prominence using multiple approaches. Some studies have evaluated role prominence using multiple identities, for example, Habib and Lancaster (2006) evaluated the roles men occupy through a list of sixteen identities (e.g. father, friend, worker, sportsman, and husband). Other studies have explored the perceptions of motherhood with both positive and negatively framed terms to illicit responses (Ellestad & Stets, 1998; Gaunt, 2008; Nuttbrock & Freudiger, 1991). Research findings have presented an association between identity prominences, for example the centrality a role has on a person's life and the emotions that role illicit, and identity congruent behaviours (Stets & Biga, 2003; Stets & Burke, 2009; Stets & Carter, 2011). Studies have also explored conceptually similar constructs, such as importance or centrality of a role (Burke & Reitzes, 1991; Stryker & Serpe, 1994).

Motives associated with volunteer role identity (Güntert & Wehner, 2015) and role prominences in sport coaching (Mills, 2015; Pope & Hall, 2014b) have gained research interest. Volunteer research using role identity theory has explored how commitment to pro-social role identities develop (Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007; Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002; Stoner et al., 2011). According to Stoner et al. (2011) critical to understanding why people undertake extra-role behaviours such as volunteering is an exploration of the outcomes and benefits people perceive from a role. Penner (2002) suggests that individuals develop a *"citizenship identity"* based on the value perceived in a role and the motives to carry the role out. If the perceived value of a role is salient, then there is a likelihood that the role will be acted out. According to Burke and Stets (2005) citizenship identities have emotional, behavioural and cognitive elements that reflect the importance of an identity to the individual. For example, volunteering as a sport coach may well start because your child engages in a sport, which provides an emotional tie to that organisation or club. When watching your child, you may be cognisant of the need to be seen to assist, to organise etc, which may lead to you being asked to commit to volunteering, leading to behavioural engagement.

According to Penner (2002) a volunteer role identity "concerns the extent to which a person identifies with and internalises the role of being a volunteer" (p.463); and how it becomes part of the self-concept. As such, it forms a fundamental variable when exploring why people take up volunteer roles. Research has suggested positive correlations associated with time given to volunteering and extended engagement (Piliavin, Grube, & Callero, 2002; Finkelstein & Brannick, 2007), positive well-being (Thoits, 2015), and motivation to volunteer (Güntert & Wehner, 2015). Other research in the field has identified variations in types of volunteering (Finklelstein & Brannick, 2007; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005). Studies have explored formal and informal volunteering motives, as well as

differentiating general role identity and organisation-specific role identity (see Grube & Pilavin, 2000). Results from studies cautiously promote the view that commitment to volunteer and motivation has an influence on the prominence given to any accepted role (Stoner et al., 2011).

Exploration of motives engage and volunteer in sport coach settings from a role identity theory perspective are at present limited, with the majority of research exploring the role of the volunteer coach from a social capital perspective (Bradford, Hills, & Johnstone, 2016; Griffiths & Armour, 2014). Two notable exceptions are the different approaches taken by Pope and her colleagues (Pope & Hall, 2014a, 2014b, 2015; Pope et al., 2014) and an interpretive auto-ethnographic account presented by Mills (2015).

Development of the psychometric measure, the Coach Identity Prominence Scale (Pope & Hall, 2014a), was initially brought about through a qualitative evaluation exploring how coaches' identify with their role (Pope et al., 2014). Using semi-structured interviews and thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), Pope et al. (2014) identified that responses from the sample presented an initial construct for coach identity, consisting of two higher order themes; coach meanings and coach identity prominence. The coach meanings construct established three sub-themes: coaching behavioural expectations, coaching characteristics, and ultimate coaching purpose. Whereas the coach identity prominence construct was divided into two sub-themes, coaching emotions and coaching centrality. According to Pope et al. (2014), and consistent with the theory underpinning role identity (Burke & Stets, 2009), in this study, intention to continue as a coach and role persistence was associated with the centrality of the role and the emotions experienced whilst coaching. Identified by the authors, study limitations meant further research was needed to fully explore the relevance and impact of coach identity prominence. In order to address this perceived gap in sport coach research, development and validation of the psychometric tool was undertaken.

Guided by the role identity model (McCall & Simmons, 1976), multi-phase testing and psychometric analysis designed an eight-item structure, consisting of two factors, centrality and evaluative emotions (Pope & Hall, 2014a). Further factor validity by Pope and Hall (2014b) was undertaken to explore relationships between coach identity prominence, motivation (McLean, Mallet, & Newcombe, 2012) and passion to coach (Valerand et al., 2003). Results identified significant and positively associated outcomes for centrality and regulated emotions in relation to intrinsic motives, integrated regulation and identified regulation, supporting the link between role emotions (Stets, 2005; Pope, Hall, & Tobin, 2014) and motivation. According to Stets and Burke (2000), in role-based identities, some form of "interaction and negotiation is usually involved" (p. 227), therefore links between passion and the centrality sub-scale were also identified. Although it was noted, further research to explore the depth of any proposed associations was required (Pope & Hall, 2014b). The most recent study has explored the degree to which coaches' identity prominence and basic psychological needs were associated with commitment, positive affect and intentions to persist in their role (Pope & Hall, 2015). Results suggested that there were relationships between commitment and intentions to persist, but were weaker than anticipated, leading the authors to suggest that other variables outside the scope of their study (for example, time spent coaching and conflict with other areas of their lives) may be influential. This has lead Pope and Hall (2015) to have suggested longitudinal studies exploring coach role identity are needed to fully explore its strength and direction for different types of coaches and coach domains.

A contrasting approach has recently been undertaken by Mills (2015). Adopting autoethnography, this study takes an interpretive approach to show the complexities associated with the development of a coach identity. Using vignettes as reflexive mechanisms, Mills (2015) discusses *"re-entering the profession"* (although still, and always

as a volunteer), and the challenges he has faced in coaching. Using his *"academic voice"* he explores the consequences of this identity on other identities in his life and the values he associates with the role. Suggesting that a coach identity is "dynamic and open to change" (p. 615), but easily influenced by social and environmental factors (Callery et al., 2012). Examples presented included: conflicting values and practice dilemmas (Telfer & Knowles, 2013), the use of a coaching persona (Barnston, 2014a), contradictory practices and the emotional impact of forming this identity (Stets, 2005).

2.3 Framing intentions and actions

Across academic disciplines (for example, sociology, political science, social, organisational and cognitive psychology, and anthropology), the manner in which organisations, groups and individuals frame their intentions has been conceptualised (Edmondson, 2003). Literature has provided notable theoretical accounts of frames and framing (Gamson, 1995; Goffman (1986); Kahnman & Tversky, 1984; Schön & Rein, 1994). Due to the approaches taken, terminology is often used casually, with tacit understanding and knowledge of a reader assumed (Entman, 1993). Edmondson (2003, p. 35) proposes that a "frame is a set of assumptions and beliefs about a particular object or situation". For Schön, (1983, p. 310) role framing is "the ways in which they (practitioners) construct the reality in which they function", which implies role frames strongly influence practitioner reflection. PERRI 6 (2005) suggests when examining functions frames perform, specific items can be distinguished. Firstly, he suggests that frames define critical events that require attention; secondly, they provide structure that represents *"people's worlds"* and thirdly, they are perceptions that influence decisions and behaviour.

2.3.1 Theorising framing - four contrasting approaches

According to Cassotti et al. (2012), Prospect Theory, or the framing of risky decisions (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) is an extensively researched area associated with how individuals frame decisions. Kahneman and Tversky (1979, p. 263) define a frame as "a decision maker's perception of the acts, outcomes and contingencies associated with a particular choice". As human decision making can be inherently risky and biased, frames exist to scaffold the decision making process (Hallahan, 1999; Kahneman & Fredrick, 2007). To explain framing bias in decision making, the existence of two distinct theories of reasoning are postulated. Kahneman and Fredrick (2007) suggest that human decision making arises from a combination of intuitive/heuristic and analytical/executive processes that influence the decisions people make. Intuitive/heuristic operations are a form of everyday reasoning (Cassotti et al., 2012). These actions are typically rapid, automatic, and emotionally charged; whilst actions that involve analytic/executive operations in contrast are slower, controlled, deliberate, but also susceptible to disruptive influences (Gross, 2008).

PERRI 6 (2005) suggests that the examination of risky decisions can also be seen as a narrative of a person's life, as it provides an explanation for why certain preferences change (or stabilise) when substantial or influential events take place within a lifespan. Kahneman and Tversky (2000) argue that certain factors can influence framing effects of any given situation. They suggest that key components include: the environment, psychology of the individual and emotions. Therefore, they propose that "the frame that a decision maker adopts is controlled partly by the formulation of the problem and partly by the norms, habits and personal characteristics of the decision maker" (Kahneman & Tversky, 2000, p.365). Leading them to suggest that there is a dynamic temporal aspect associated with the framing of choices. Tversky and Kahneman (1986, p. 257) stipulate that the theory distinguishes two phases in the choice process: "a phase of framing and editing followed by a phase of

evaluation". The first phase allows for preliminary analysis of the decision problem, which in turn frames contingencies and outcomes. During the second phase, the framed prospects are evaluated, with the prospect of highest value selected. Kahneman and Tversky (2000) identify that the theory chooses between any prospects by either comparing their perceived value or detecting a prospect that dominates another. Leading to a situation where the best course of action is not always adopted. Unlike some approaches, prospect theory highlights the role of cognition when framing decisions, and the importance of emotion in biasing any action.

As a consequence, studies exploring the impact of decision making and inherent risk are common (Levin, Schneider, & Gaeth, 1998). Initial studies used experiments that gave paired choice problems and explored the consequences and choices of decisions (Kahneman &Tversky, 1983; Tversky & Kahneman, 1981, 1986). One scenario explored the outbreak of a disease, which was expected to kill 600 people, choices were given surrounding programmes to combat the problem (Kahneman &Tversky, 1983). In the results from a sample (N = 152), 72% adopted the scenario in which 200 people could be saved, whilst 28% opted for a probability scenario, which suggested a one-third chance all 600 could be saved, but a two-thirds probability no people will be saved. In this situation, because of the content, decisions were generally risk averse, leading Kahneman and Tversky (1983) to conclude the perceived severity of a problem has an impact on the decision making and framing process. However, when choices explored concurrent decisions, in the case a gambling scenario, looking at loss and wins options, results were less predictable (Kahneman and Tversky, 1983, 2000). With it being proposed that decisions were based on reasoned-choice, past experiences, but also contained an emotional element (Kahneman & Fredrick, 2007) According to Shafir, Simonson, and Tversky (1993), when dealing with difficult and complex decisions, people come up with reasons why they should, or should not carry out an action.

With interpretation used to take the most appropriate (perceived) course of action, however, internal conflicts may arise if there are good reasons for, and against competing options. According to PERRI 6 (2005), this type of frame formation is related to, but not just aligned to decision making. Suggesting that there is an emotional element to the process in which the severity of any consequences is taken into consideration (Cassotti et el., 2012). However, it has been identified that there are issues associated with decisions being framed based on the severity of a situation.

Meta- analytical studies have also been carried out on prospect theory, Kühnberger, (1998) used a data pool of 136 studies with the results suggesting that framing is a reliable phenomenon, but outcomes are prone to variation, based upon the perceived nature of the decision being made and the relevancy of the decision to that individual. Problem-based research using prospect theory has explored the issue of framing decisions in real life scenarios. Used extensively in health to explore health-enhancing versus health- limiting alternatives, studies have explored the role framing has on perception and choice. Studies have examined post-natal depression (Lloyd & Hawe, 2003), testing for diseases (see O'Keefe & Jenson, 2006) and the use of framing to change health behaviours (Hoffner & Ye, 2009). In their study, Hoffner and Ye (2009), explored young adults' responses surrounding the use of sunscreen and skin cancer. Their findings suggested that both loss frames: if you don't use sunscreen, your chances of getting skin cancer are greater and positive frames: using sunscreen can aid in the prevention of skin cancer had an impact on participants. Results suggested that the salience of the message to a person, and the perceived importance and relevance of the issue were key factors in the option they took. It was illustrated, that better understanding and clarity of any perceived outcomes identified; meant the issue was more likely to receive further investigation. It was identified that due to the age of participants without clear information and, or knowledge about the subject, an informed

decision was difficult. Similarly, at a young age, the consequences of actions are not always reflected upon, as there is not always an appropriate schema or relevant experiences; on which to base decisions. Hoffner and Ye (2009), suggest this has implications for framing effects, in that knowledge and experience assists the decision maker to make an informed decision. Therefore, with respect to framing roles this an important component to consider (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b).

In episodic and thematic framing (Iyengar, 1991), Gamson and Modigliani (1987, p.143) suggest frames are "central organising ideas or story lines that provide meaning to an unfolding strip of events, weaving a connection between them". Gamson and Modigliani (1987) and Gamson (1992) have highlighted that frames can be analysed through the examination of three components; which specify the moral stance an individual takes towards any given issue, the conception of collective action and collective identity. Gross (2008, p.171) suggests that "episodic frames present an issue by offering a specific example, case study or event oriented report, whilst thematic frames place issues in broader context". Via this theory of framing, Gamson (1992) has suggested that frames provide biases, views or ideas that are only related to action in a conceptual manner, which makes the biasing function of a frame more robust, than the function of organising experience. Gross (2008) suggests when communicating controversial issues studies have shown the impact frames can impose on issues; as well as the manner in which they influence and shape opinion (Nelson, Clawson, & Oxley, 1997; Sniderman & Theriault, 2004). The frame suggests what the controversy is about, the essence of the issue. Gross and D' Ambrosio (2004) identify that depending on the way in issues are communicated frames can alter the relationship between emotional response and predispositions. However, critics highlight the abstract nature of this form of framing as an issue, with the lack of consistency in approach with in hoe researchers

have identified key components and that "each frame can be defined by a single overarching abstract concept or implicit organising idea" (Gamson, 1992, p.3).

Situational role framing (Bateson, 1972) defines a psychological frame as "a spatial and temporal bounding of a set of interactive messages" (p. 191). Goffman (1974) expanded this notion, to describe framing as "the definition of a situation ... built up in accordance with principles of organisation that govern events and our subjective involvement in them" (Goffman, 1974, p. 10). Through this theorised approach to frames and framing effects, he suggests that within society, the most important frames are those that influence social norms and provide a stable social framework. For example, the acceptance of laws and social conventions. He suggests individuals operate within a stable social framework of culturally accepted norms or rules, which he argues constitutes "the central repertoire of a society's culture" (Goffman, 1974, p. 27). The approach illustrates that frames ensure social norms *"organise experience"* and provide order for everyday ritual. Goffman (1974) identifies that three terms underpin the process: *"keying",* bringing into focus particular aspects of everyday life by creating past interactions, *"anchoring",* the rooting of ideas in deeper frames of meaning; and *"fabrication",* the recasting of certain dimensions of experience so they are made salient within a situation or interaction. Hallahan (1999) contends this form of framing constitutes the interaction between people and situations in everyday living, with the framing of situations providing structure for examining communication. Goffman (1986, p. 247) contends frames are "social institutions, organisational premises', not something cognition creates or generates". Therefore, this approach differs from other conceptually relevant approaches, due to its lack of reliance on decision making, cognition or emotion.

Kinsella (2006) has suggested that the work of Schön (1983, 1987) has been pivotal in relation to framing practice for *"real world"* practitioners and has gained unprecedented attention within professional education. Schön's (1983, 1987) work along with colleagues

(Rein & Schön, 1992) have provided a methodology to engage with and provide a platform to develop professional growth. According to Schön (1983), it is suggested that this growth is develop through two processes: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, this Schön (1983) refers to as a *"reflective conversation".*

The model posited by Schön, has proposed that reflection is deemed to have both cognitive and behavioural functions that provide a process through which thought and action can influence the issue being investigated. Critical differences are hypothesised in relation to the role that reflecting-on-action and reflecting-in-action play in the development of practical professional knowledge. Schön (1987) has suggested that these differences revolve around when and how reflection takes place, stipulating that reflection-in-action is a tacit act, inseparable from the action itself; whilst reflection-on-action is a more conscious act. As such, reflection-on-action is a measured activity that relies on exploring actions that have occurred. In addition to the importance and clarification of when and how reflection takes place, Schön identified four themes deemed to be central to the theory: role frames, problem setting, experiments and professional repertoires. In relation to role frames, Rein and Schön (1996, p. 65) have highlighted that general theories surrounding frames, identify different ways in which to examine and utilise the concept, which they have highlighted are "distinct but mutually compatible images rather than competing conceptions". They have presented these concepts as being scaffolding, a boundary that separates a series of specific phenomena from their context; "a cognitive/appreciative schema of interpretation or strong and generic narratives that guide both analysis and action in practical settings" (Rein & Schön, 1996, p. 66). It is the latter; that they have suggested best describes the way in which frames influence practice, as such "narratives are diagnostic or prescriptive stories that tell, within a given terrain, what needs fixing and how it might be fixed" (Rein & Schön, 1996, p. 66). In his hypothesis, Schön (1987, 2001) has identified that there are distinctions in the way in which

individuals construct frames, as well as the sort of evidence that aids in the construction of a frame. Two forms are postulated, rhetorical frames and action frames. Research utilising the principles proposed by Schön have tended to explore the role of reflection, rather than examine the influence role frames have on the process specifically. One exception, being Gilbert and Trudel (1999, 2001, 2004b), will be explored later in this review.

Researchers who are critical of Schön's approach have argued that there is a lack of conceptual clarity (Nelson, Oxley, & Clawson, 1997; Rogers, 2004; Rømer, 2003). Rømer (2003) has suggested that unlike "technical rational models" that explore problem solving in professional activity through scientific theory and technique, the use of a constructivist approach presented within generic narratives and frames, is overtly arbitrary and ambiguous. According to Eraut (1995, p.14), "several critics have argued that Schön fails to sufficiently clarify what is entailed in the reflective process". Leading him to have argued that Schön's appraisal of reflection appears too divorced from the realities of human nature, and at times is almost too rational. However, Kinsella (2010) notes "Schöns ideas go some way toward a re-invigoration of a notion of phronesis (wise action) as a complement to episteme (scientific knowledge) and techne (pragmatic knowledge) in professional life" (p. 565).

Irrespective of the stances taken in relation to how, why or what influences the framing of action and roles, compatible items are identified. Framing models are reliant on the assumption that human decision making arises from a combination of intuitive or heuristic and analytical or executive processes that influence the decisions that individuals make. Whilst in others, irrespective of whether frames are considered psychological or social constructs there is commonality in relation to the interpretation of situations. With Entman (1993, p. 52) having suggested that:

> To frame is to select some aspect of a perceived reality and make them more salient, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, casual interpretation, moral evaluation and, or treatment for the item described

2.4 Learning to coach

2.4.1 Understanding the coaching process

Research to conceptualise and define the coaching process is controversial. Cushion et al. (2006) argue that modelling the coaching process has led to reductionist models that suggest a linear and sequential format to investigate coaching. Lyle (2002) distinguishes two forms that represent the structure and function of the coaching process; models *"of"* and models *"for"* coaching. Theorised models (see Fairs, 1987; Franks, Sinclair, Thomson, & Goodman, 1986; Lyle, 2002; Sherman, Crassinini, Mashette, & Sands, 1997) present a representation of coaching through orderly and interrelated steps (Cushion, 2007). However, in literature, models *"of"* coaching have been open to criticism, due to an over simplification of their ideas (Jones, Edwards, & Viotto Fihlo, 2014; Jones & Wallace, 2005; Jones & Turner, 2006). Models *"for"* coaching have been postulated to conceptualise coach-athlete interaction and identifying the complexity of the coaching process (see Côté et al., 1995, Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; d'Arripe-Longueville et al., 1998). As with theorised models, this approach has been criticised. For the de-contextualised nature of data utilised to support models (Miller & Cronin, 2012) and not adequately detailing or interpreting the dynamic or adaptive nature of coaching (Jones, Bowes, & Kingston, 2010; Saury & Durand, 1998). Researchers' having suggested that coaching is too complex, multi-faceted and integrated, to be explained in simplistic terms or through one-dimensional models (Cassidy et al., 2009; Cushion, 2007; Cushion et al., 2006; Lyle & Cushion, 2010; Jones & Wallace, 2005). A contemporary approach to exploring the essence of coaching has been undertaken by Barnston (2014a). This approach suggests that coach interactions are influenced by five categories that represent the essential components associated with the coaching process (Barnston, 2014b). According to Barnston (2014a), centred on the category of *"actions",*

which represents observable actions within coaching, are four categories identified in figure 2.1: purpose, outcome, inner-coaching self, and outer-coaching self.

Figure 2.1. Coaching Paradox Framework (Barnston, 2014a)

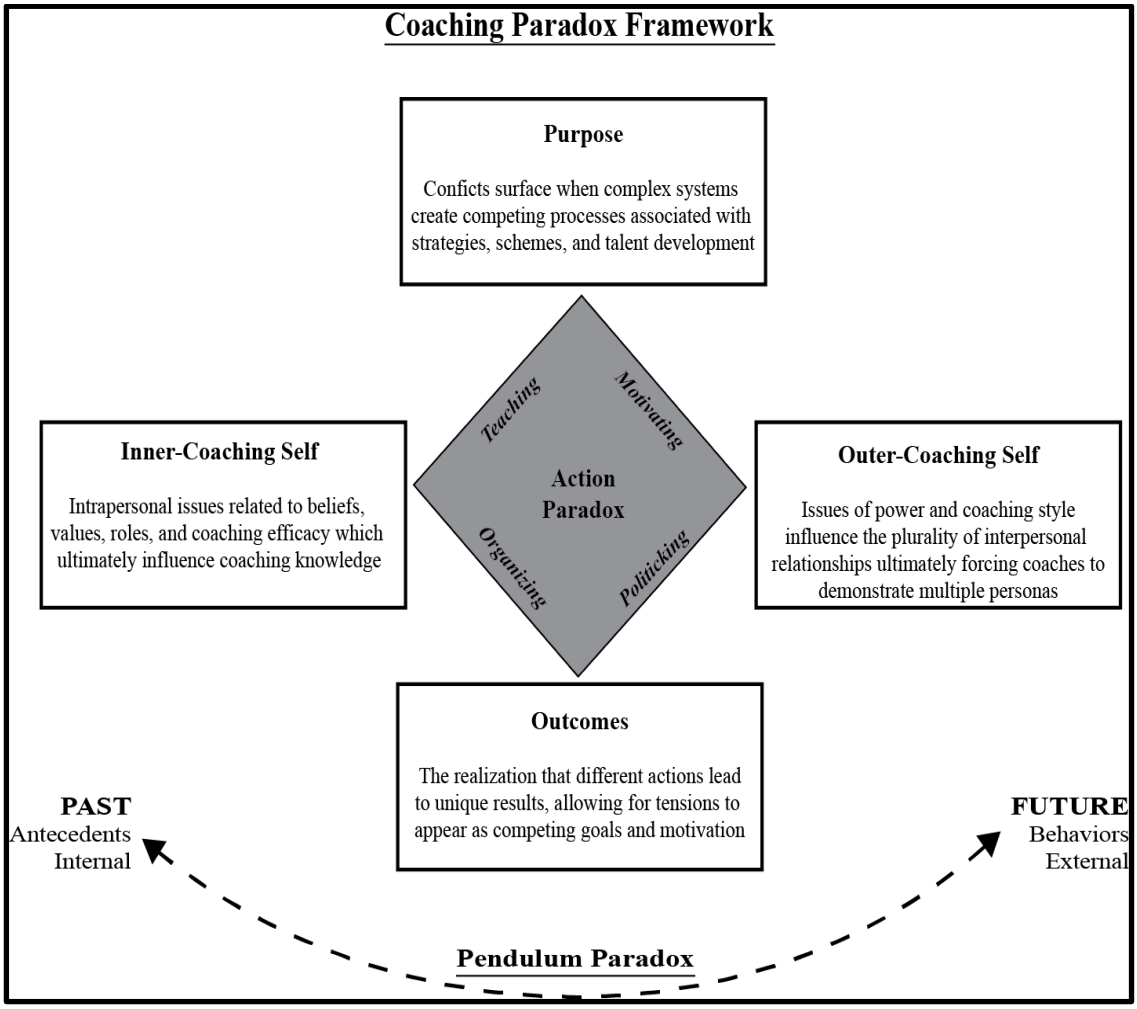


Figure 2.1: The Coaching Paradox Framework. Adapted from "Toward a theory of coaching paradox," by S.C. Barnston, 2014, Quest, p. 373. Copyright 2014 by Taylor and Francis.

Coach actions are the observable outcomes in coaching, such as teaching skills, motivating athletes, planning and organising. According to Barnston and Watson (2009), the inner-coaching self refers to perceptions such as values (Nash, Sproule, & Horton, 2008), roles (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004a) and coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 2009). Outer-coaching tension occurs because of the relational nature of sport coaching as it involves multiple stakeholder interactions (ICCE, 2013) and the interplay of power relationships (Potrac &

Jones, 2009; Rylander, 2015). Barnston (2014b) identifies that coaches' present an outward facing identity so they can act out interactions with others. The purpose category provides the context for coaching and strategies used to underpin coach practice; with the outcome category providing focus for coaching. According to Barnston (2014b, p.371) as "multiple tensions exist as part of the coaching process", dilemmas in sport coaching are unavoidable. The dynamic and challenging nature of sporting environments also makes coaching an unstable environment. Barnston (2014b) identifies that tension may exist within elements of a category or between categories and other elements of the coaching process.

Coaching in the community youth sport domain requires coaches' to deal with complex issues (Nash et al., 2008). Therefore, understanding how the coaching process is conceptualised is an important learning mechanism (Lyle & Cushion, 2010). As it allows coaches' to formulate strategies to solve problems. Research has suggested effective problem solving is linked to cognition (Vergeer & Lyle, 2009), influenced by knowledge (Abraham & Collins, 2011; Trudel & Gilbert, 2009), past experiences and reflection (Knowles et al., 2006; Trelfa & Telfer, 2014). As such, of significant importance when exploring the manner in which coaches' make sense and form their role, are the processes coaches' adopt to explore, learn and develop role attributes (Trudel & Gilbert, 2004b, 2009).

2.4.2 How community youth sport coaches' learn

How coaches learn to coach is a prevalent, but contentious research topic that has received much attention in contemporary academic coaching literature (Gilbert, Côté, & Mallett, 2006; Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Hussain et al., 2012; Piggott, 2012). Studies have highlighted a dichotomy between the manner in which coaches actually learn to coach and the national systems in place to evaluate and certify sports coaches (Nash & Collins, 2006; Nelson & Cushion, 2006). With current coach education practice subjected to criticism for its inability to provide sufficient opportunities to learn in situ (Winchester, Culver, & Camiré,

2013), explore innovative coaching practice (Roberts & Ryrie, 2014), and develop the reflective skills necessary for effective youth sport coaching (Knowles et al., 2006). Nash and Sproule (2012) have highlighted that although formal coach education provides some formative development, evidence of its long-term effectiveness still remains questionable (Chesterfield, Potrac, & Jones, 2010; Leduc, Culver, & Werthner, 2012; Nelson, Cushion, & Potrac, 2013). Hussain et al. (2012) have acknowledged the general consensus over the need for training and certification of coaches; although, it is the structure, delivery and form of the training that remains an issue for debate (Jones & Turner, 2006; Stodter & Cushion, 2014).

Research has suggested that learning to coach is brought about by a sophisticated combination of experiences with a range of distinct, but related approaches being postulated (Nelson & Cushion, 2006; Mallet et al., 2009; Werthner & Trudel, 2006). Nelson and Cushion (2006) proposed three distinct ways in which practitioner learning takes place. They suggest these are: formal coach learning; learning designed around a relatively standardised core curriculum with the coach having to demonstrate they have assimilated the required knowledge and skills. Non-formal coach learning, which are organised educational activities outside the formal system designed to provide selected types of learning to specific sub-groups; and informal coach learning, learning that relates to situations that are self-directed and based upon personal experiences and activity within the sports environment. Werthner and Trudel's (2006) appraisal of practitioner learning proposes that the cognitive structures associated with learning change under the influence of three complimentary types of situation. Mediated learning, where the learner is directed to salient information by a more experienced other. Unmediated learning which involves a learner deciding what is important or useful and choosing what to learn under their own initiative. As well as internal learning which involves no presentation of new information, but is a reconsideration of new ideas (Trudel et al., 2013).

Studies have examined the learning dispositions of youth sports coaches (Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Vargas-Tonsing, 2007), the developmental activities utilised (Young et al., 2009) and preferences in gaining knowledge (Erickson et al., 2008; Gilbert et al., 2009; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007). Research has identified cumulative learning via: formal coach education activities, hands-on coaching experience, former athletic experiences, and apprenticeships or mentoring (Wilson, Bloom, & Harvey, 2010; Young et al., 2009). With a recurring theme being development through practical coaching, observation and engagement with others (Cushion & Nelson, 2014; Cushion et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2007), which if used appropriately enhances coach pedagogy (Cushion et al., 2009). North (2010) argues that non-formal methods of learning should not be underestimated, a point supported by others (Irwin, Hanton, & Kerwin, 2004; Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2007), as non-formal learning is grounded in the *"reality of practice"* (North, 2010, p. 362). As such, Stodter and Cushion (2014) having suggested that coaches' undertake an idiosyncratic approach to learning through a mix of learning experiences that they value.

2.4.3 Learning to coach through experience

Whilst learning through experience or experiential learning has been contextualised in wider literature (Moon, 2004; Jarvis, 2007). Cushion and Nelson (2013) argue that in academic coach research there still remains a lack of clarity surrounding how experiential learning is defined. A situation deemed to be problematic as experiential learning forms the fundamental mechanism for coach development (Cushion et al., 2006; Lyle & Cushion, 2010; Trudel & Gilbert, 2006; Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013). Indeed, evidence would suggest that experiential learning is not *"just doing"* (Cushion & Nelson, 2013), but is a series of processes through which practitioners can explore coaching issues; and with practice become competent in developing strategies to solve and evaluate problems (Cushion & Lyle, 2010; Gilbert & Trudel, 2001; Winchester et al., 2013). In essence, the aim is the development of

reflective practitioners (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001; Irwin et al., 2004; Knowles et al., 2001, 2006; Trelfa & Telfer, 2014), who possess appropriate functional attributes and decision making skills to undertake specific roles (Nash et al., 2008; Taylor & McEwan, 2012).

Cushion and Nelson (2013) have proposed that in exploring how coaches learn experientially, arguably the most robust theoretical framework to date is provided by Gilbert and Trudel (2001). In their experiential learning model which explored processes adopted by youth sport coaches, it was hypothesised that coaches engage in different forms (and levels) of reflective practice (Gilbert & Trudel, 1999, 2001). These being: reflection-in-action (during the action), reflection-on-action (timely reflection, but not during the action) and retrospective reflection-on-action (outside of the action). Based on the work of Schön (1983, 1987, 1991), Gilbert and Trudel (2001) identifiy six components that are influential in the development of learned experiences. These components are: (a) coaching issues, (b) coach role frames, (c) issue setting, (d) strategy generation, (e) experimentation, and (f) evaluation (see figure 2.2). Gilbert and Trudel (2001) suggest coaching issues are the catalyst on which any reflection of experience or learning takes place. In youth sport coaching, multiple variables are presented as factors that may well illicit issues. Although not an exhaustive list, they include: coach experience and attributes, athlete behaviour, external influences and performer variables (Becker 2009). In addition, temporal factors are acknowledged as antecedents, such as coach motives (McLean, Mallet, & Newcombe, 2012) and coach efficacy (Myers, Feltz, & Wolfe, 2008; Sullivan, Paquette, Holt, & Bloom, 2012).

The second component a coaches' role frame, brackets the process (Gilbert & Trudel 2004b). It suggests that any reflection is implicitly linked to a coach's personal approach or philosophy towards coaching (Nelson & Cushion, 2006). Therefore, a coaches' role frame becomes fundamental in relation to influencing perceived issues that require further evaluation (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b). Gilbert and Trudel (2001, 2004b) have highlighted

that the process acts as a *"filter",* through which only valid issues are examined. Nelson and Cushion (2006) have argued that the ability to dismiss inconsequential information is an important facet of professional development. According to Cushion and Nelson (2013), filtering non-relevant cues allows for an increased awareness in developing appropriate coaching responses toward valid issues. Conversely, according to Nash and Sproule (2012) and Nash et al. (2008) for less experienced coaches' there may be an inability to ascertain what issues do, or do not warrant further attention. With the suggestion being less experienced coaches' possess a limited and less reliable knowledge base on which form or filter information (Nash et al., 2008; Winchester et al., 2013).

The third component, issue setting refers to the process of deciding why the issue is important enough for evaluation. It is at this stage where the *"reflective conversation"* is instigated (Cushion & Nelson, 2013; Nelson & Cushion, 2006). During this time, the coach draws upon a range of resources to develop a series of strategies that are generated to test and experiment the issue. This process is then evaluated in order to examine the success of the reflective conversation. If the process is deemed to be effective and the issue solved, the coach stops the reflective process, however if the results were not effective, the coach returns to the strategy generation phase (Nelson & Cushion, 2006).

Figure 2.2. Overview of reflection model (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001)

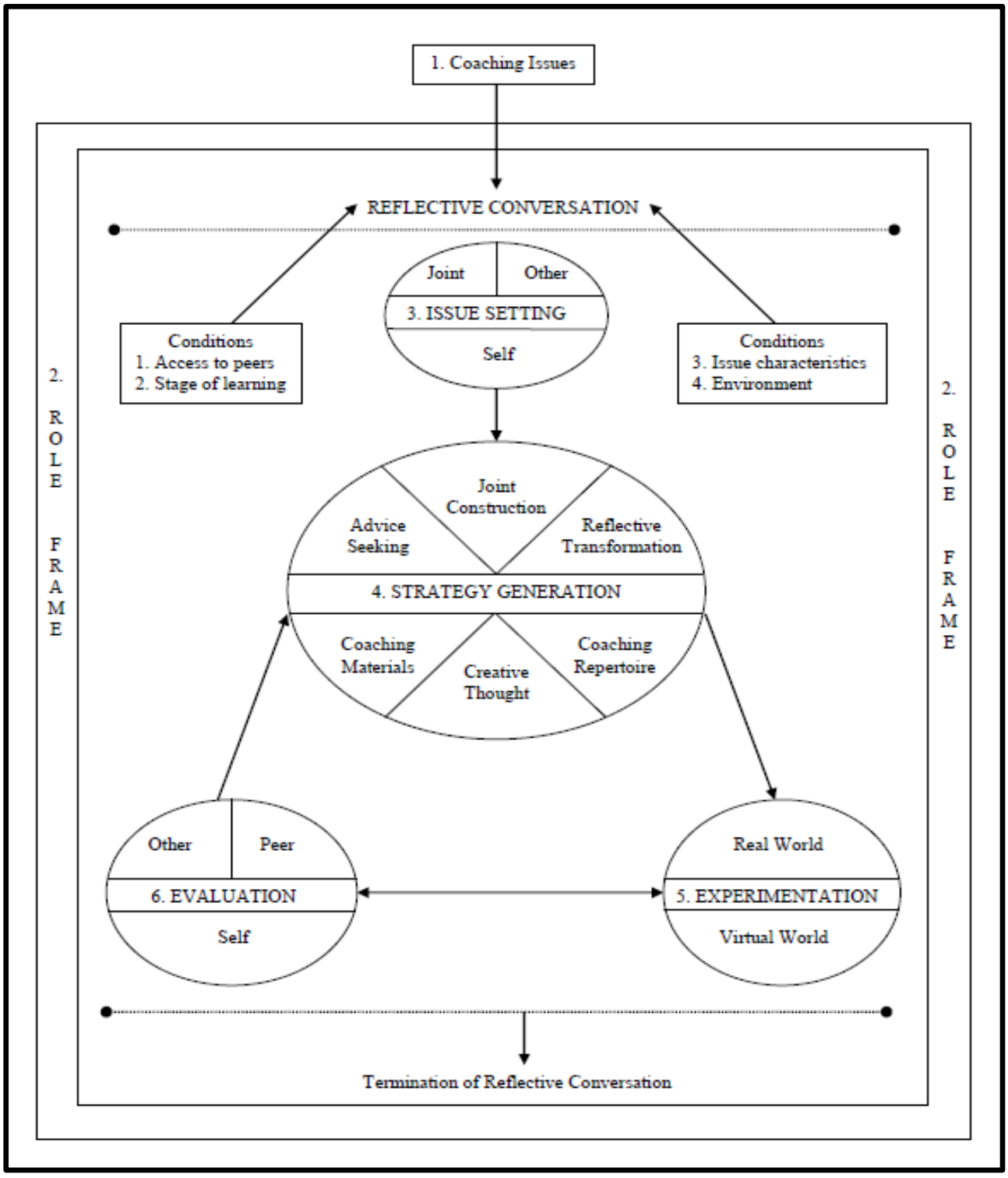


Figure 2.1: The overview of reflection model. Adapted from "Learning to coach through experience: Reflection in model youth sport coaches," by W.D. Gilbert, and P. Trudel, 2001, Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, p. 23. Copyright 2001 by Human Kinetics.

Whilst this conceptual framework relates to processes that mediate experience and knowledge (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001) concerns associated with its effectiveness have been raised. Concerns are predominately associated with two elements: (a) practitioner use, understanding and initiation of self-reflection (Carson, 2008; Picknell, Cropley, Hanton, & Mellalieu, 2014), and (b) linked to the coaching process; a practitioners' appraisal and ability to identify issues that warrant investigation (Nash et al., 2008).

Self-reflection has been acknowledged as fundamental in tackling complicated day to day realities (Hughes, Lee, & Chesterfield, 2009) and promoted as a tool to support coaches in the dynamic and challenging world of practice (Marshall, Nelson, Toner, & Protac, 2014). According to Whitehead et al. (2016) the process of reflection is defined by time associated engagement. For example, reflection-in action takes place "in the moment" and is seen to be intuitive (Cassotti et al., 2012). As such, this form of reflection is typically rapid, almost automatic in nature, whereas, reflection-on-action enables the analysis of situations, actions and events; post-delivery. Allowing the practitioner to make sense of their practice and improve (where necessary). Finally, retrospective reflection-on-action is staged reflection that takes place beyond practice and allows for a revalidation of practice effectiveness.

Investigations into the use of reflection in coach education have presented a mixed appraisal of its effectiveness (Hussain, Trudel, Patrick, & Rossi, 2012). For example, formal coach education provision is starting to employ reflective practice as a mechanism for coach development (Cropley, Miles, & Nichols, 2016) although it is suggested that the current format is more aligned performance evaluation, than effective reflection of practice (Picknell, et al., 2014). Barriers to reflection are identified in coach education provision. Burt and Morgan (2014) explored perceived barriers to reflective practice through investigation of UKCC level one and two rugby union coaches. Results emphasised significant barriers to ongoing engagement with reflection. This included time pressures, motivation to instigate

reflection and organisational barriers, with participants citing joint responsibility for their lack of engagement (themselves and club support). Research has been undertaken to explore refection-on-action, studies by Knowles et al. (2001) used educational interventions to support refection in undergraduate sport coaching students, with follow-up analysis post graduation (Knowles, Tyler, Gilbourne, & Eubank, (2007). Results suggested that post-graduation, reflection still occurred, but was now embedded in practice.

Picknell et al. (2014) acknowledge that accounts of reflection in practice, have examined the values, conflicts and role interactions of an individual youth sport coach (Peel, Cropley, Hanton, & Fleming, 2013). Studies have also identified the role reflection can play on supporting coach development principles (Gibert & Trudel, 1999, 2005). A recent study by Whitehead et al (2016) adopted an innovative approach to evaluating reflection-in-action. Utilising *"think aloud"* protocols the study used six rugby coaches with little experience of refection in an intervention that included: workshops on reflection, verbalised accounts of practice, follow-up social validation interviews and support. Results suggest that the intervention had positive benefits for participants and an increased understanding of reflection. Specifically it enhanced communication, the awareness of verbalised thoughts and reflection, but most importantly; pedagogic change.

However, the effectiveness of refection in certain coach settings has been questioned (Gallimore, Gilbert, & Nater, 2014). Summarising the current situation, Gallimore et al. (2014) argue in essence, coaches' value facilitated reflection, but surmise that clear evidence of its effectiveness is certain situations still limited. As reflection is an important longitudinal criterion in developing coaching expertise, knowledge and learning (Gilbert, Gallimore, & Trudel, 2009). A clearer understanding of its role in specific coaching contexts appears to be an important development in furthering academic coach literature and practice (Cropley et al., 2015; Whitehead et al., 2016).

2.4.4 Framing the role of the youth sport coach

Gilbert et al. (2006) suggest as coach development occurs through social interactions and domain related activities; contextualisation of one's role is essential. Therefore, Nash et al. (2012) argue coaches' are required to adopt approaches that match the needs of athletes or participants. Evidence suggests that to achieve appropriate conceptualisation of one's role; a distinction in the skills and attributes needed has to be acknowledged (Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2006). To support this premise, Côté et al. (2007) have presented four different categories of coaches based upon developmentally appropriate domains. These being: (a) participation coaches for children, (b) participation coaches for adolescents and adults, (c) performance coaches for young adolescents, and (d) performance coaches for older adolescents and adults. An approach that has been adopted in the International Sport Coaching Framework (ICCE, 2013). As research and informed practice continue to identify the role of the coach as complex (Jones, Morgan, & Harris, 2012), research into the developmental processes of coaches' in each category is required (Côté, 2007; Gilbert & Trudel, 2009).

This is specifically seen to be the case for coaches' who operate in community youth sport, where there still remain issues associated with how coaches in this domain learn to coach (Côté, 2006; Lemyre et al., 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006; Wright et al., 2007). The developmental structures put in place to support development (Mallett, Trudel, Lyle, & Rynne, 2009; Jones, Harris, & Miles, 2009), as well as the effectiveness of behaviours used within practice (Partington & Cushion, 2012). At present some coaching takes place within community youth contexts without individuals necessarily having appropriate competencies or pedagogic skills (Cronin & Armour, 2013). Research also questions the efficacy and skill set of coaches' who operate in educational establishments (Capel et al., 2011; Griggs, 2012;

Smith, 2013) or other contexts where different skills (for example, developing PYD) are required (Flores et al., 2013; Moen & Verburg, 2012).

However, unlike practitioners in more established fields (for example, education and the medical professions) coaches in this domain do not usually have extended training, or work environments that provide clear structure or examples of how roles should be defined (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b). The issue is further compounded by the prominence of volunteers taking roles in youth sport (Griffiths & Armour, 2014). Leading to a situation which may leave youth sport coaches "on their own when they construct and develop their personal approach towards coaching" (Gibert & Trudel 2004b, p. 21). Identified earlier in this chapter, role framing can be defined as "the ways in which they (practitioners) construct the reality in which they function" (Schön, 1983, p. 310). According to Lyle and Cushion (2017) role frames act as filters through which professional responsibilities are defined. Although they also acknowledge that role frames require to be purposefully developed. As such, role frames are seen by some researchers as a key element in understanding coach roles; as it is proposed "role frames strongly influence a practitioner's reflection, as only those issues that are consistent with their role frame components are addressed" (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b, p. 22). According to Gilbert and Trudel (1999) role frames are used to interpret situations. Gilbert and Trudel (2004b) illustrated that in practice; youth coaches' may interpret situations they are in differently. This interpretation could be based upon multiple variables (for example, context, age group, and sport), a coach's personal beliefs (Jacobs, Claringbould, & Knoppers, 2014), their motives for coaching (Jowett, 2008) and cumulative experiences (Nash & Sproule, 2011). It is suggested that the manner in which practitioners frame roles is influential in determining what information is valued (Gilbert & Trudel, 2005). As such, role frames can affect the actions, cognitions and ultimately, behaviours coaches' enact.

Gilbert and Trudel (2004b) identified that in accordance with the views of Schön (1983), role frames are viewed as being tacit. And that the framing of roles "allows for the development of a cumulative repertoire of exemplars, facts and descriptions" (Gilbert & Trudel, 1999, p. 3), that can be utilised to develop effective meaningful episodic coaching experiences (Callary et al., 2012a). However, it has been argued by Nash, Sproule, and Horton (2008, p. 541), that due to the complex nature of the community youth coach role, "specifically the tensions, confusions and contradictions engendered within the highly unstructured environment". Coaches' are exposed to situations which allow for dynamic alterations to practice through experiential learning. Leading them to have suggested that although certain aspects of a "frame" will remain constant, individuals who value and embrace development opportunities may be able to re-frame aspects of their roles. Acknowledging this concept, Young, Jemeczyk, Brophy, and Côté (2009) suggest contemporary coaching literature recognises the importance of tangible and varied experiences essential to the coach development process. Lyle and Cushion (2010) go further, suggesting individual coach domains present unique challenges; and that coaches will frame their roles "within a set of educational, contextual and experiential circumstances" (p. 247). Implicitly linked to the understanding and framing of one's role, is the use of appropriate pedagogic approaches and behaviours (Harvey et al., 2013; Roberts, 2011). Studies that have explored the framing of roles in youth sport coaching have used multiple case-studies (Yin, 2009) to evaluate components that form elements within frames. In particular, two studies by Gilbert and Trudel (1999, 2004b) have explored the structure of role frames in youth coach settings. According to Gilbert and Trudel's (2004b) approach, composite role frames had two elements: boundary components and internal role frame components. Boundary components are suggested to be situational factors that influence the coaching process, whilst internal role frame components are values, beliefs and approaches

held about coaching. In the study, numerous internal components were identified; issues such as competition, equity of practice, and providing a positive team environment were cited as items that required further investigation through reflective processes. Dynamic in nature, they are presented as drivers for engaging in specific behaviours. Boundary components were seen to be more stable and related to the needs of the group, as such; items such as age, gender and competitive level were illustrated as factors that influenced practice. There are suggested limitations with this approach. The study appears to concentrate on the episodic nature of the coaching process from a uni-dimensional perspective, that is, it doesn't explicitly recognise holistic, organisational or social elements associated with sport coaching. Due to the tacit nature of role framing, role frames are implicitly linked to individual values and beliefs, therefore although there may be commonality, frames are specific and individual to a person. Only a cursory explanation was given as to how role frames act to support experiential learning and development. There was no recognition of the impact other parties have on the role framing process, for example, how interactions with others coaches had the capacity to increase knowledge. Or present alternate ways of approaching or dealing with situations. Therefore, it is suggested that the way community youth sport coaches' frame their role is more complicated and multifaceted than identified by Gilbert & Trudel (2004b).

Côté and Gilbert (2009, p. 307) ask the question: "What differentiates effective coaches from ineffective coaches?" In doing so, they illuminate an issue within sport coaching research that still requires further investigation and clarification. There still remain issues associated with the notion of self-directed learning (Roberts & Ryrie, 2014) as well as the way in which learning and experiences are used to define, shape and frame roles. Evidence shows effectiveness in coaching is not immediate, but developed over the long-term; linked to their experiences and contexts in which they operate (Ericksson, Côté, & Fraser-Thomas, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006).

Chapter 3

Study one gathered baseline quantitative data on community youth sport coaches (n=219) using pre-validated questionnaires. This was to examine factors that are seen to influence the manner in which coaches operate. Utilising the independent variables of coach education level, coach status, and gender. The motives to coach (Fredrick & Morrison, 1999), coach self-efficacy (Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999) and the impact of professional role complexity (Brumels & Beach, 2008) of community youth sport coaches were explored. Results of the findings are presented, with significant outcomes discussed.

A component of this chapter (professional role complexity) was presented as a poster presentation at the 9th Global Coaching Conference (ICCE) in Durban, South Africa on 12th September 2013.

Study one – Motivation, efficacy and role perception in community youth sport coaching: A quantitative data analysis

3.1 Introduction

The roles undertaken by community youth sport coaches are both complex and multifaceted (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Lyle & Cushion, 2010; Jones, Armour, & Potrac, 2003). It has been suggested that the demands placed on coaches extend beyond the performance environment with ancillary roles and the facilitation of social and psychological development seen as essential (Knowles, Tyler, Gilbourne, & Eubank, 2006). Influential in allowing coaches' to engage appropriately is a clear understanding of their role. Nash and Sproule (2009) have identified that effective coaches are those who are able to adapt their behaviours appropriately to their coaching environment. For example, provide appropriate differentiated pedagogic behaviours when coaching children. According to Busser & Carruthers (2010) understanding the influence coach interactions have on others is also imperative. For example, providing safe learning environments (Telfer & Brackenridge, 2011) and acting as an appropriate role model (Lyle, 2010). Super, Verkooijen and Kellen (2016) identified that the community youth sport coach is a key contributor to creating the social conditions for development and have been referred to as important human resources (Griffiths & Armour, 2014; Harman & Doherty, 2014).

However, as coaches' operate in a complex, dynamic, but messy reality (Cushion et al., 2006) and that anyone can undertake the role of a youth sport coach; issues exist (Barnson, 2014a; Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, 2004b). For example, coaches who possess insufficient experience and limited pedagogic knowledge (Roberts, 2011), or hold counterintuitive values about youth sport (Devine & Telfer, 2013). Studies have investigated perceived values and roles in youth sport coaching, which have suggested a dichotomy between coach role beliefs and the behaviours exhibited during practice and competition (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b; McAllister, Blinde, & Weiss, 2000; Nash & Sproule, 2009).

Research and practice suggests that individuals' progress through a range of responsibilities and roles within a lifespan, complicating the dynamics associated with the formation, framing and development of coach roles (Eys et al., 2014). Becker (2009) and McLean and Mallet (2012) propose that to understand the dynamics involved in youth sport coaching, coaches' cognitive, affective and behavioural experiences need to be explored. With coach motivation and efficacy suggested to be influential factors (Barnston, 2014a; Leidl, 2010).

Fundamental to the exploration of motivation in the coaching process, is delineation between the role a coach has in motivating participants, and the influences that motivate coaches' to coach (Jowett, 2008; McLean & Mallett, 2012). The actions and outcomes undertaken by coaches to motivate athletes have been studied extensively (Adie & Jowett, 2010; Keegan et al., 2010; Smith, Cumming, & Smoll, 2008), with less emphasis placed on what drives coaches to sustain their engagement in a turbulent and complex environment (McLean & Mallett, 2012). Jowett (2008) argues that as coach motivation provides the focus for the direction and intensity of coach behaviours, clarity of its role in supporting athletes' is required (McLean, Mallet, & Newcombe, 2012; Rynne, Mallett, & Tinning, 2006). Coach motivation has been identified as an important facet in the engagement of individuals within the coaching process, in terms of initiating engagement in sport and long-term participation (Amorose, 2007; Eys et al., 2013; Mallett, 2005; McLean & Mallett, 2012). With coaches' acknowledged as architects in meeting the goals and expectations of participants (Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Mallett & McLean, 2012). Coach motivation not only influences coaches' own satisfaction and well-being, but has implications for interactions with others (Occhino, 2014). Studies illustrate the impact coach motivation and passion has on the coach-athlete dyad (Carpentier & Mageau, 2014; Lafrenière et al., 2011), and the role session structure has on participant learning and enjoyment (Morrison & Fredrick, 1999).

Research has also identified the role coach motivation has on experiential learning (Mallet, 2005; Occhino, Mallett, Rynne, & Carlisle, 2014) and development (Jowett, 2008; Mallett & McLean, 2012). With coaches' who are motivated to learn, more likely to engage in deep evaluation and reflection (Peel et al., 2013; Whitehead, 2016), and adopt effective pedagogic behaviours (Jacobs, Claringbould, & Knoppers, 2014; Light & Robert, 2010).

The prevalent theoretical lens used to explore motives for coaching is Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). Self-Determination Theory (see Ryan & Deci, 2002), is a social-cognitive theory which draws a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000) suggest that internally motivated individuals engage in an activity primarily for the enjoyment and satisfaction gained from participation per se; whereas those individuals who are extrinsically motivated participate in order to obtain rewards that are extrinsic to the behaviour itself (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Fredrick & Ryan, 1993, 1995). An underpinning assumption of SDT is the concept that self-determination is a multi-dimensional framework that works along a continuum.

According to McLean, Mallet, and Newcombe (2012) motivational orientations can present different cognitive, emotional and behavioural consequences for coaches' and athletes'. Suggesting that in different situations there may be a predisposition towards either extrinsic or intrinsic motives. For example, motivation to train could be intrinsically referenced, whilst competing may have extrinsic orientations. Jackson, Grove, and Beauchamp (2010) examined the impact of developing an effective motivational climate on the quality and relational efficacy of the coach-athlete relationship, finding a positive relationship between coach motivation and athlete engagement. These findings were corroborated by Hampson and Jowett (2014), who identified links between coach leadership behaviours, positive coach-athlete relationship and shared efficacy.

Coaching efficacy is a factor that has been found to affect the sport experience of both coaches and their athletes (Feltz et al., 1999; Myers, Feltz, & Wolfe, 2008; Sullivan, Paquette, Holt, & Bloom, 2012). Coach efficacy is defined and represents coaches' beliefs in their ability to affect the learning and performance of their athletes (Feltz et al., 1999). In Feltz et al's. (1999) conceptual model, total coaching efficacy (TCE) and four efficacy sub-scales are identified. Motivation efficacy (ME) is defined as a coach's belief in their ability to affect the mood and psychological state(s) of their athletes (Feltz et al., 2008), game strategy efficacy (GSE) is the confidence coaches' have to coach during competition and lead their team to successful outcomes. Myers et al. (2008) have described technique efficacy (TE) as a coaches' confidence in their ability to effectively demonstrate skills, recognise talent and identify skill errors. The final dimension is character building efficacy (CBE) defined as a coaches' confidence in their ability to promote athletes' personal development and their wider responsibility to sport and other participants (for example; fair play and mutual respect). Research adopting the CES has identified coach efficacy as a factor that influences; coach and athlete sport experiences of coaches (Feltz et al., 1999; Vargas-Tonsing, Myers, & Feltz, 2004), coach behaviours (Chase, Feltz, Hayashi, & Helper, 2005; Malete, Sullivan, & La Forge, 2013; Myers, Vargas-Tonsing, & Feltz, 2005), and emotional intelligence (Thelwell, Lane, Weston, & Greenlees, 2008) , and is related to; leadership (Myers et al., 2006; Sullivan & Kent, 2003; Sullivan et al., 2012), commitment to coach (Kent & Sullivan, 2003) team efficacy (Vargas-Tonsing, Warners, & Feltz, 2003) and gender differences (Marback, Short, Short, & Sullivan, 2005; Myers et al., 2011).

The role coach education has on coach efficacy has also been explored (Malete & Sullivan, 2009; Sullivan & Gee, 2008; Sullivan et al., 2012), with results illustrating that coaches who have recognised coaching qualifications had higher self-efficacy scores across all CES factors than those who did not; suggesting a link between coach education,

knowledge and practice. Studies have examined the context in which coaches' operate (Feltz et al., 2009; Myers, Vargas-Tonsing & Feltz, 2005) and identified that in some contexts sources of efficacy information may be more important (Feltz, Short & Sullivan, 2008). Feltz, Helper, Roman, and Paiement (2009) have argued that as coaches' are influential in developing youth sport, understanding by parents, coaches, athletes and researchers of the coaching-related factors that affect the coaching process are fundamental. Myers et al. (2005) identified that coaches with higher efficacy mean scores, were found to use more positive coaching behaviours and had more athletes that were satisfied with them as a coach.

Therefore, to explore the impact coach motivation, coach efficacy and role conflict may have in community youth sport settings; the current study looks to evaluate three variables, the gender of a coach, the status of a coach (are they paid or a volunteer), and the education level of the coach. Using quantitative methods, the study aims to provide a baseline analysis and understanding of elements that are proposed to influence the shaping and framing of community youth sport coach roles.

3.2 Hypotheses

In order to explore factors that may influence the role of the coach in youth sport settings, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. Hypothesis one (H1) - significant differences in coach efficacy, coach motivation and professional role complexity will occur based upon coach qualification level.
2. Hypothesis two (H2) - significant differences in coach efficacy, coach motivation and professional role complexity will occur depending on the status of the coach.
3. Hypothesis three (H3) – the gender of the coach will provide significant differences in relation to coach efficacy, coach motivation and professional role complexity.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Participants

Active community youth sport coaches (N = 218) participated in the study; 161 (73.5%) were male and 58 (26.5%) were female. All coaches operated in the community domain, with 102 (46.6%) classifying themselves as volunteers, 84 (38.4%) as part-time paid and 33 (15.1 %) as full-time paid coaches. Coach education certification of the sample was also reported, with the results highlighted in table 3.1:

Table 3.1. Sport Coaching Qualification Level

Coach Level	Number	Percentage (%)
Not Qualified	20	9.1
Level one	78	35.6
Level two	77	35.2
Level three (and above)	44	20.1

Note: To allow for effective analysis coach education levels three to five have been collapsed. The sample now replicates more effectively the principles of the ICCE (2013) coaching framework that aligns coach qualifications to four coach roles (assistant coach; coach; senior coach; master coach).

3.3.2 Instruments

To gather reliable and valid data on community youth sport coaches, a two-part survey package was developed (Appendix A). Part one contained a series of closed questions modelled on an existing coach profile tool to provide participant demographic information (Timson-Katchis & North, 2008). In the second section three psychometric scales were used to examine: coach motivation (Fredrick & Morrison, 1999), coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999), and professional role complexity (Brumels & Beach, 2008).

Coach Motivation Scale (CMS)

The CMS (Fredrick & Morrison, 1999) has 21 items, participants respond to each on a seven-point Likert scale anchored with 1 (not at all true for me) to 7 (very true to me). Five

coach motivation sub-scales are assessed: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, social, growth and education and professional relations. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for this measure are reported as ranging from .83 - .54 (Fredrick & Morrison, 1999).

Coach Efficacy Scale (CES)

This psychometric tool measures total coach efficacy through four sub-scales: motivation, strategy, technique and character building. The CES has 24 items that participants respond to on a nine-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all confident) to 9 (extremely confident). Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients for this measure are reported as ranging from .84 -.94 (Feltz et al., 1999).

Modified Professional Role Complexity Questionnaire (MPRCQ)

Professional role complexity was assessed through a modified version of the Professional Role Complexity questionnaire (Brumels, 2005; Brumels & Beach, 2008). With the author's permission, modifications were made to reflect the role responsibilities of community sport coaches within the UK. As the original questionnaire was directed at athletic trainers, questions replicating responses in different settings (e.g. as a clinician, faculty member, in practice) were removed. This provided a modified 28 item questionnaire opposed to the original 45 items. The MPRCQ has eight sub-scales: role conflict, intra-sender conflict, inter-role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, role incongruity, role incompetence and overall role complexity. Participants responded on a six-point Likert-scale ranging from 0 (not applicable) to 6 (almost always stressful**).** Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients for these measures are reported from .87-.63 (Brumels, 2005; Brumels & Beach, 2008).

3.3.3 Procedure

Research ethics board approval was granted for this questionnaire-based study (FREC Reference Number 283/09/AR/SES). Initial contact with sports organisations was undertaken through an information sheet (Appendix A) detailing the aims, procedure and scope of the study. Coaches were invited to take part in the research by host organisations. In some cases, questionnaires were completed in hard copy, in others the information was sent via electronic communication. To ensure sample anonymity, prior to questionnaires being directed back to the primary researcher, all coaches provided informed consent prior to completing the research. Due to the nature of data collection, a response rate is unavailable, as it is not known how many coaches actually received and read the recruitment e-mails sent by organisations.

3.4 Data Analysis

Initial analysis of the data indicated normality assumption violations, therefore to test the hypotheses non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test were used with follow up asymptotic pairwise comparisons (Meyer & Seaman, 2013). Level of significance was set at .05.

3.5 Results

3.5.1 Coach Motivation Scale (CMS)

Table 3.2 presents the descriptive statistics for the Coach Motivation Scale (CMS), means scores (M), standard deviation (SD) and response range are reported. Table 3.3 presents the results of the between subject effects for the Coach Motivation Scale (Frederick & Morrison, 1999). Highlighted are the results for each dependant

variable showing chi-square, degrees of freedom and significance level for each factor in the measure. Where appropriate pairwise comparisons showing asymptotic significances are reported (Meyer & Seaman, 2013).

Table 3.2. Descriptive Statistics for Coach Motivation Scale (CmS)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Range
Intrinsic motivation	5.68	01.09	3.00 - 6.17
Extrinsic motivation	3.64	1.46	0.00 - 6.80
Social	4.87	1.05	1.50 - 7.00
Growth and education	6.07	1.08	2.67 - 7.00
Personal relations	5.17	1.15	1.33 - 7.00

Note: The coach motivation construct measured on a scale from 0 to 7.

Table 3.3. Coach Motivation Scale (CMS) between subjects effects (Kruskal-Wallis)

Dependant Variable	χ^2	*df*	Significance
NGB Qualification			
Intrinsic Motivation	11.57	3	0.009**
Extrinsic Motivation	1.70	3	0.637
Social	6.59	3	0.086
Growth and Education	21.03	3	0.001**
Personal Relations	11.43	3	0.010**
Coach Status			
Intrinsic Motivation	2.46	1	0.117
Extrinsic Motivation	22.32	1	0.000**
Social	3.67	1	0.055
Growth and Education	3.86	1	0.050*
Personal Relations	3.31	1	0.069
Gender			
Intrinsic Motivation	0.11	1	0.918
Extrinsic Motivation	0.01	1	0.936
Social	0.02	1	0.902
Growth and Education	0.01	1	0.981
Personal Relations	0.16	1	0.688

Note: * p<.10; **p<.05 (two-tailed); N = 218 (list-wise deletion of missing data)

In all CMS sub-scales no significant differences were reported for gender. Significant differences were reported in three of the five CMS sub-scales: intrinsic motivation, growth and education and professional relations with respect to coach education level. For the intrinsic motivation sub-scale a significant effect of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 11.572, p <.01 was reported with pairwise comparisons showing asymptotic significances between coach education levels 0 to 2 (p <.024), levels 0 to 3 (p <.001) and levels 1 to 3 (p <.001). In the growth and education sub-scale, significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 21.027, p <.01 was reported. Pairwise comparisons highlighted significant differences between coach education levels 1 to 3 (p <.005) and level 2 to 3 (p <.002). The professional relations sub-scale reported significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 11.427, p <.010, with pairwise comparisons identified between levels 0 to 2 (p <.056), levels 0 to 3 (p <.0005), levels 1 to 3 (p <.0005) and levels 2 to 3 (p <.024).

Significant results were identified in two of the five CMS sub-scales with respect to coach status (paid or volunteer). For the extrinsic motivation sub-scale a significant effect of χ^2 (1, N = 219) = 2.464, p <.000 was reported and in the growth and education factor, significant effects of χ^2 (1, N = 219) = 3.857, p <.050 was identified.

3.5.2 Coach Efficacy Scale (CES)

Table 3.4 presents the descriptive statistics of the CES. Means, standard deviation (SD) and response range are reported. Table 3.5 presents the results of the between subject effects for the CES (Feltz et al., 1999).

Table 3.4. Descriptive Statistics for Coach Efficacy Scale (CES)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Range
Total coach efficacy	7.08	0.97	2.63 - 9.00
Motivation	6.99	1.07	2.71 - 9.00
Strategy	6.89	1.15	1.43 - 9.00
Technique	7.33	0.96	2.83 - 9.00
Character	7.43	1.15	3.00 - 9.00

Note: CES is measured on a scale from 0 to 9, with higher scores indicating higher level efficacy.

No significant differences were reported in any CES factors with respect to gender. Significant differences were reported for TCE and all sub-scales in relation to coach education level. For TCE a significant effect of χ^2 (3, N = 218) = 26.69, p <.01 was reported with pairwise comparisons showing asymptotic significances at coach education levels 0 to 2 (p <.026) and levels 0 to 3 (p <.001). For the ME sub-scale a significant effect of χ^2 (3, N = 218) = 24.13, p <.01 was reported. Pairwise comparisons showing asymptotic significances at levels 0 to 2 (p <.033), levels 0 to 3 (p <.0005) and levels 1 to 3 (p <.001).

In the GSE sub-scale, significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 218) = 21.79, p <.0005 were reported with pairwise comparisons highlighting significant differences; levels 0 to 3 (p < .0005), levels 1 to 3 (p <.005) and level 2 to 3 (p <.024). Coach TE reported significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 218) = 27.90, p <.0005, with pairwise comparisons identified between levels 0 to 2 (p <.032), levels 0 to 3 (p <.0005), levels 1 to 3 (p <.0005) and level 2 to 3 (p <.0.24). Significant differences were reported for CBE with significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 218) = 15.04, p <.002 reported, pairwise comparisons were identified between levels 0 to 3 (p <.001). With respect to the coach status, significant differences were identified for TCE and two sub-scales: ME and TE. For TCE significant effects of χ^2 (1, N = 218) = 5.56, p <.018, was reported. In the ME sub-scale a significant effect of χ^2 (1, N = 218) = 7.062, p <.008 was

reported, in the technique sub-scale, significant effect of χ^2 (1, N = 218) = 5.65, p <.017 was identified.

Table 3.5. Coach Efficacy Scale (CES) between subjects effects (Kruskal-Wallis)

Dependant Variable	χ^2	*df*	Significance
NGB Qualification			
Total Coach Efficacy	26.69	3	0.000**
Motivation	24.13	3	0.000**
Strategy	21.80	3	0.000**
Technique	27.90	3	0.000**
Character Building	15.04	3	0.002**
Coach Status			
Total Coach Efficacy	5.56	1	0.018**
Motivation	7.06	1	0.008**
Strategy	2.82	1	0.093
Technique	5.65	1	0.017**
Character Building	1.36	1	0.243
Gender			
Total Coach Efficacy	0.01	1	0.952
Motivation	0.11	1	0.738
Strategy	0.19	1	0.663
Technique	0.05	1	0.818
Character Building	0.05	1	0.820

Note: * p<.10; **p<.05 (two-tailed); N = 218 (list-wise deletion of missing data)

3.5.3 Modified Professional Role Complexity (MPRCQ)

Table 3.6 presents the descriptive statistics of the MPRCQ; means scores (M), standard deviation (SD), and response range are identified. Table 3.7 presents the results of the between subject effects for the MPRCQ (Brumels & Beach, 2008), results showing chi-square, degrees of freedom and significance level are presented. Where appropriate pairwise comparisons showing asymptotic significances are reported (Meyer & Seaman, 2013.

Table 3.6. Descriptive Statistics for Modified Professional Role Complexity Questionnaire (MPRCQ)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Range
Role Conflict	2.10	0.74	0.17 - 4.50
Inter-role Conflict	2.17	0.88	0.33 - 4.67
Inter-sender Conflict	1.86	0.94	0.00 - 4.50
Intra-sender Conflict	2.15	0.80	0.14 - 5.00
Role Incompetence	1.83	0.89	0.00 - 4.50
Role Incongruity	1.92	0.79	0.25 - 4.50
Role Ambiguity	2.02	0.92	0.00 - 4.50
Role Overload	2.15	0.75	0.67 - 4.67

Note: The MCPRQ is measured on a scale from 0 to 5.

No significant differences in any of the MPRCQ sub-scales were reported for the variables of gender or coach status. Significant differences were found in five of the eight sub-scales: role conflict, intra-sender conflict, inter-role conflict, role-overload and role incompetence with respect to coach education level. The role conflict sub-scale reported a significant effect of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 10.387, p <.0016, pairwise comparisons showed asymptotic significance between level 2 to 3 (p <.031) and level 1 to 3 (p <.020). In the intra-sender sub-scale, significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 9.074, p <.028 were reported. Pairwise comparisons highlighted significant differences between levels 1 to 3 (p <.024). The inter-role sub-scale reported significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 10.640, p <.014, with pairwise comparisons identified between levels 1 to 3 (p <.012) and level 2 to 3 (p <.041). For the role overload subscale, a significant effect of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 12.251, p <.007 were reported, asymptotic significances between levels 1 to 3 (p <.021) were identified. Finally, in the role incompetence sub-scale, significant effects of χ^2 (3, N = 219) = 14.381, p <.002 were reported, with pairwise comparisons between levels 2 to 1 (p <.022) and levels 2 to 0 (p<.009).

Table 3.7. Modified Professional Role Complexity Questionnaire (MPRCQ) between subjects effects (Kruskal-Wallis)

Dependant Variable	χ^2	*df*	Significance
NGB Qualification			
Role Conflict	10.39	3	0.016**
Inter-Role Conflict	10.64	3	0.014*
Inter-Sender Conflict	7.15	3	0.067
Intra-Sender Conflict	9.07	3	0.028*
Role Incompetence	14.38	3	0.002**
Role Incongruity	7.25	3	0.064
Role Ambiguity	7.76	3	0.051
Role Overload	12.25	3	0.007**
Coach Status			
Role Conflict	0.12	1	0.734
Inter-Role Conflict	0.01	1	0.909
Inter-Sender Conflict	0.45	1	0.501
Intra-Sender Conflict	0.31	1	0.577
Role Incompetence	0.89	1	0.346
Role Incongruity	0.01	1	0.938
Role Ambiguity	0.30	1	0.583
Role Overload	0.13	1	0.719
Gender			
Role Conflict	0.58	1	0.448
Inter-Role Conflict	1.47	1	0.225
Inter-Sender Conflict	0.55	1	0.460
Intra-Sender Conflict	0.28	1	0.599
Role Incompetence	0.12	1	0.726
Role Incongruity	1.73	1	0.188
Role Ambiguity	1.99	1	0.158
Role Overload	1.14	1	0.287

Note: * p<.10; **p<.05 (two-tailed); N = 218 (list-wise deletion of missing data)

3.6 Discussion

The primary purpose of the study was to explore the effect of coach education level, coach status (paid/volunteer) and gender on coach motivation, coach efficacy and professional role complexity. Detailed below, are an examination of the results discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study.

3.6.1 The role of motivation on community youth sport coaches

For coach education significant differences were identified in three of the five coach motivation sub-scales: intrinsic motivation, growth and education and professional relations. Pairwise asymptotic comparisons presented significant variation between "well-qualified" and "less-qualified" community youth sport coaches, lending support to hypothesis (H1). These differences are suggested to link to two factors identified in the introduction; the coaches' ability to provide autonomy supportive environments and the manner in which coaches' coach. McLean and Mallett (2012) have suggested that coach actions provide significant motivational influence in sport. Therefore, understanding the impact that internally motivated autonomy supportive coaching can have is fundamental (Ahleberg, Mallet, & Tinning, 2008). Rocchi et al. (2013) have identified that the relationship between the coach and their athletes can provide a platform for numerous positive outcomes. Studies have evaluated coaching as a factor in developing appropriate motivational climates (Adie & Jowett, 2010; Keegan et al., 2010; Smith, Cumming, & Smoll, 2008), mediating the effectiveness of coach-athlete relationships (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Rhind & Jowett, 2010) and enhancing the general well-being of participants (Gillet, Vallerand, Amoura, & Baldes, 2010). Additional studies have explored the effectiveness of coaches in supporting performance (Keegan et al., 2010; Weinburg, Butt, Knight, & Perrit, 2001), understanding the wider social needs of athletes (Lorimer, 2013; Lorimer & Jowett, 2010) and the role motivation has on long-term sport participation (Olympiou, Jowett, & Duda, 2008; Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2010). Better qualified coaches, via practice and experience may well present a clearer evaluation of their impact on participants (McLean & Mallet, 2012). Whereas, coaches' who are less well qualified may perceive themselves to have a limited coaching repertoire (Occhino, 2014) and be less inclined to adopt processes that are autonomous. Mallet (2007) has identified that in SDT, conceptualisation of

intrinsically motivated behaviours is linked to interest, facing unique challenges, exploration and learning. As such, a clearer understanding of one's role and the impact on others may well be crucial. The second factor is related to the manner in which coaches' coach. Iachini et al. (2010) identified the range, extent and diversity of events that provide satisfaction and motivation in sport are numerous, however coach delivery has the greatest potential to impact on athlete engagement and satisfaction. Hollembeak and Amorose (2005) reported correlations between the style of coaching utilised and athlete efficacy. As coaches with lower coach education levels, by their very nature tend to be less experienced in their role. It is suggested when they encounter unique challenges, they tend to "revert to type" that is to say, use behaviours they are comfortable with. As coaching styles taught in formal coach education are predominantly prescriptive (Cushion & Armour, 2006; Roberts, 2010), this may well influence approaches towards participant engagement.

In the growth and education sub-scale significant differences were reported between qualification levels one to three and level two to three. A reason why significant differences were identified could be due to the emphasis coaches' place on personal development and the learning of their "craft". This is a factor that is proposed to be differentiated across expertise and experience levels (Nash & Sproule, 2011; Nash et al., 2011). Discussed in chapter two, researchers have examined the way in which community coaches learn (Gilbert, Côté, & Mallett, 2006; Vargas-Tonsing, 2007; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007) and have highlighted various approaches across a formal-non-formal continuum. As coaches understand their role more effectively and develop their skills (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b), it is proposed that they will have a better understanding of the impact personal growth has on all parties involved in community sport. Therefore, this acts as a catalyst to be better motivated to engage in the process of learning (McLean, Mallet, & Newcombe, 2012).

The professional relations sub-scale identified significant differences between coach education levels zero to two, levels zero to three, levels one to three; and levels two to three. Reason why these differences occur could be related to the beliefs coaches' who work within this environment hold (Nash et al., 2008), and the roles more qualified coaches' tend to undertake in sports organisations. As better qualified coaches may well hold positions of authority and be involved in structural and personal development, this may influence the way in which they interact with colleagues to support and mentor their development (Miles et al., 2009).

Significant differences in two of the five CMS sub-scales (extrinsic motivation and growth and education) were reported based upon coach status, suggesting partial support for hypothessis H2. These results may not seem to be unusual, as coaching in a volunteer capacity does not normally present itself with extrinsic tangible gains; with people undertaking roles for primarily altruistic reasons (Busser & Carruthers, 2010). Whereas, those employed to coach do so as a professional endeavour and as such, benefit from extrinsic rewards. For the growth and education sub-scale as a full or part-time paid coach, greater emphasis may well be placed on CPD and meeting contractual role demands (Taylor & Garrett, 2010a, 2010b). Whilst for the volunteer coach, development undertaken is argued to meet wider social objectives (Griffiths & Armour, 2014), for example supporting club structures and teams. As such, CPD may be prone to competing time demands thus are less able to engage. There were no gender differences in relation to CMS sub-scales, as such, support of hypothesis H3 is rejected.

3.6.2 The influence of coach efficacy on the role of a youth sport coach

The mean scores of all CES sub-scales were quite high ranging from 6.89 – 7.43 and were consistent with previous research (Feltz et al., 1999, Malete & Feltz, 2000; Sullivan & Kent, 2003). Hypothesis H1 proposed that significant differences in coach efficacy would

occur based upon the education level of the coach (H1). Significant differences were found in relation to TCE and all four sub-scales. As such, hypothesis H1 is accepted.

According to Feltz et al. (1999) ME is a belief in the ability to support and motivate athletes, therefore it is posited that as coaches' develop effective repertoires (Gilbert et al., 2006; Gilbert et al., 2009; Hampson & Jowett, 2014), there is better understanding of strategies that can motivate athletes (Kidman & Hanrahan, 2011). Considered a crucial component when coaching young athletes (Webb, 2008), Malete, Sullivan, and La Forge (2013) argue as confidence is increased, strategies and positive behaviours to engage and motivate their athletes become more efficient. In addition, as coaches increase their level of education they are exposed to a greater range of scenarios, which can, as Côté et al. (2007, p. 7) suggest expand and develop the "rich internal representations of how things should be handled when they are confronted with real-life coaching situations". This in turn, allows coaches' to understand and provide effective guidance to performers. Previous studies have suggested that enhanced ME was attributable to engagement in formal training and instruction (Malete & Sullivan, 2009; Sullivan & Gee, 2008; Sullivan et al., 2012). Feltz et al. (2009) have also proposed motivation efficacy is linked to coaching experience and as such, is also product of not just qualification level, but wider personal development.

GSE, the confidence coaches have to coach during competition (Feltz et al., 1999) illustrated significant differences across coach education levels zero to three, levels one to three; and level two to three respectivley. For the current sample, this result is of interest due to the context in which the coaches operate. Evidence has suggested that over-time, coaches are able to develop a range of coach behaviours that support and develop their ability to work more effectively during competitive encounters (Côté, 2006). However, this factor may not necessarily be the most influential in the development of athletes in this domain. Therefore,

further investigation to establish the reasons behind this significant finding may be warranted in future studies that examine community youth sport coaches motives and behaviours.

For the TE sub-scale asymptotic significances across the majority of coach education levels were identified. As TE refers to confidence to effectively demonstrate skills, recognise talent and diagnose skill errors (Feltz et al., 2009), the importance of being able to do this effectively with young athletes cannot be underestimated (Côté et al., 2007). Results in this study suggest that a positive perception surrounding skill development and diagnosis was increased as a coach becomes better qualified. Kavussanu et al. (2008) highlights that experiences accrued have been used to positively predict TE. Whilst this finding may not be surprising, the impact that the level to which a coach is educated may provide a more positive and developmental environment for young participants. Research by Marback et al. (2005) and Myers et al. (2005) have also linked coach experience to increased levels of TE, which utilised in a contextually efficient manner may be an influential factor in participant development. Findings in the current study are consistent with previous research linking efficacy and coach education (Feltz et al., 2009; Malete & Feltz, 2000; Myers, Vargas-Tonsing & Feltz, 2005), which showed pronounced confidence due to coach education within the TE and CBE components. Due to the nature and the context in which the present sample operate; the emphasis and importance placed on aspects of their coaching may well influence efficacy perception. In this context, some sources of efficacy information are deemed more important Feltz et al., 2008). It is proposed that in a community coach role, the focus may well be on player improvement, fun aspects of sport and greater focus on socialisation and personal development, which would suggest a reliance on both TE and CBE.

For CBE significant differences between coach education levels zero and three were identified. As CBE is a coaches' confidence in promoting personal development, fair play and responsibility (Feltz et al., 2009), CBE plays an important part in the overall role and

responsibilities associated with youth sport coaching (Duffy et al., 2011). An important component identified by Fraser-Thomas, Côté, and Deakin (2005) when working as a community youth sport coach is for coaches to provide opportunities for children to learn important life skills through sports participation (Flett, Gould, Griffes, & Lauer, 2013). Therefore, having confidence to influence this component of youth sport through experience and coach education provides widened learning experiences for participants. This in turn has the capacity to develop increased sports participation, socialisation and personal development (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005).

Overall, data from this study has highlighted that for community youth sport coaches, coach education played a significant role in coaching efficacy, with differences in coach education levels identified. These results concur with previous studies. Sullivan et al. (2012) illustrate education as a powerful source of coach efficacy. Studies having shown that coaches who completed formal coach education courses demonstrated significantly greater CE, than pre-course scores and coaches with no formal coach education (Campbell & Sullivan, 2005; Lee, Malete, & Feltz, 2002; Malete & Feltz, 2000). One limitation, highlighted by Sullivan et al. (2012, p. 131), was the use in previous research of a 'simple, dichotomous variable (i.e. coach has or has not participated in coach education programmes) as the criteria, rather than looking at the different levels of coach education'.). Identified in previous coach efficacy research (Feltz et al., 2009; Marback et al., 2004; Myers et al., 2005; Sullivan et al., 2006), data tentatively supports the assumption that coach development is a longitudinal process (Winchester et al., 2013). With higher level coaching qualifications presented as a strong predictor of efficacy.

Data highlighted that gender was not a significant factor in relation to CE, findings that are generally consistent with other studies (Feltz et al., 1999; Malete & Feltz, 2000; Myers et al., 2011), therefore hypothesis H3 for coach efficacy is rejected. Previous research

that has examined the role gender may have on CE (see Marback, Short, Short, & Sullivan, 2005; Malete & Feltz, 2000; Myers et al., 2011) have been mixed, with a number of factors presented to explain the results. One cited issue that is relevant is the number of female coaches who undertook the study. Out of the sample, only 58 (26.5%) were female coaches; and although this figure is representative of male female ratios within the youth sport domain; it may well have influenced the results. Feltz et al. (2008) have in the past identified that there is a clear lack of clarity with respect to the role gender has on coach efficacy. In addition, the researchers concur with the arguments highlighted by Myers et al. (20011) that there remains a paucity of research exploring the interaction between gender and coach efficacy.

Of more interest, are the reasons CE may influence coaches' actions (Kavussanu et al., 2008) and the implications increased CE can have on coach and participant development. Several variables are proposed to influence CE (Kavussanu et al., 2008), for example, the extent of a coaches experience, prior success, perceived skill of athletes and perceived support from organisations (Feltz et al., 2009).

3.6.3: Professional Role Complexity

Significant differences were found in relation to five of the eight sub-scales of the MPRCQ in relation to coach education level. These were: role conflict, intra-sender conflict, inter-role conflict, role overload and role incompetence, lending support to hypothesis (H1). In the role conflict sub-scale, significant differences were identified between coach education levels two to three, and levels one to three. Research has suggested that role conflict is the presence of incongruent expectations for a focal person (Eys, Schinke, & Jeffrey, 2007). It is proposed, that role conflict may occur for people with higher level qualifications. Coaches, who are more qualified, may undertake coach related roles that they might not necessarily

value or enjoy (for example: administration, overseeing assistant coaches and volunteers etc.). According to Trudel and Gilbert (2004b) unlike the more technical or tactical elements of sport coaching, community youth sport coaches are largely on their own when they construct and develop their personal approach towards this aspect of their role. As these role elements invariably are not covered in any formal coach education setting. Gilbert et al. (2006) highlight that as coach development occurs through social interactions and domain related activities, there is the possibility of conflict occurring if the skills of coaches' are incompatible with the complexity of their role (see Côté et al., 2007). Another reason for role conflict could be explained by the roles and relationships individuals hold within the coaching process, for example, an assistant coach may well not have the same philosophy as the head coach leading to micro-political tension (Potrac & Jones, 2009), may be instructed to coach in a specific way that is incongruent with their skills (Nash et al., 2008) or values (Telfer & Knowles, 2013).

Pairwise comparisons identified significant differences between coach education levels one to three in the intra-sender role conflict sub-scale. Research has suggested that intra-sender conflict can take two forms (Eys et al. 2008). One form of intra-sender conflict happens when a role sender presents two or more inconsistent expectations for the focal person (Eys, Schinke, & Jeffery, 2007). Influential factors may well include communication and group dynamics (Bray et al. 2004), role clarity (Eys et al. 2008) and expectations placed upon a coach. For example, a coach being asked to win more games, but also ensure that all participants are able to contribute to any given situation. The other form of intra-role conflict, referred to as person role conflict occurs when the expected role responsibilities conflict with the values or motivation of the individual. This may well be influenced by a number of factors such as communication, understanding of the specific roles and personal and group standards.

The inter-role conflict sub-scale identified significant differences between levels one to three and levels two to three. Inter- role conflict occurs when expectations from two or more influences interfere with one and other (e.g. family-life and sport coaching), studies that have explored inter-role conflict are extensive. Within community youth sport coaching, research has identified that inter-role conflict can occur as the requirements of roles increase (Dixon & Bruening, 2007). Leberman and LaVoi (2011) identified that this was specifically the case for coaches as they became better qualified. This was due to a requirement to undertake subsidiary tasks and greater commitments at unsocial times that impact on other influences within their lives (Leberman & LaVoi, 2011). Studies have identified inter-role conflict as a problem for volunteer community youth sport coaches, where they have had to "juggle" coaching and family responsibilities (Dixon & Bruening, 2007).

For the role overload factor a significant effect was reported with respect to levels coach education levels two to three. Brumels and Beach (2008), have suggested that role overload occurs when an individual finds it difficult to perform professional responsibilities that are excessive or are given insufficient time to complete the task or tasks. The term has been defined as occurring when an individual is able to complete all tasks, but not to a level of competence that could be achieved if other tasks were not present (Hardy & Conway, 1988). Role overload can manifest itself in a variety of ways (Eys et aI., 2006), with sub-categories reported as qualitative overload (responsibilities beyond capability) and quantitative (an excessive number of tasks). Factors that may influence the significant differences reported could include: the context in which the coach operates is incongruent to their level of education (Roberts, 2011), lower qualified coaches' may possess a lack of technical or pedagogic skills in specific domains (Côté et al. 2007), or individuals are not given the time and resources to effectively carry out their role (Lemyre, Trudel & Durand-Bush, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006).

Finally, within the role incompetence factor, significant differences between levels two to one and levels two to zero were reported. Role competence/incompetence refers to an "individual's overall ability to perform successfully within their role" (Brumels, 2005, p. 27). Role incompetence describes the situation when an individual does not have the necessary skills or knowledge to successfully perform the responsibilities inherent within a particular job (Brumels & Beach, 2008). The data suggested, that for individuals who are less well qualified as coaches (either not qualified or only qualified to level 1), the issue may be related to their ability to effectively manage and coach within a specific context at the required pedagogic level something that they might well not have the specific skills set for (Roberts, 2011). As with other measures, in relation to gender no significant differences were reported. There were also no reported differences in relation to the status of the coach. Therefore, for professional role complexity hypothesis H2 and hypothesis H3 are rejected.

3.7 Conclusion

In relation to hypothesis H1, significant differences in relation to coach efficacy, coach motivation and professional role complexity were found, presenting some evidence to support the assumption that the coach education level of a coach may well be an influential factor. However, findings have to be taken in context. It has to be acknowledged that the way in which coaches learn is more complicated than the completion of formal education (Cushion et al., 2010), therefore using this broad measure is cautionary.

There was no support for hypothesis H3 and as such, no significant differences were found in any of the measures based upon the gender of the coach. An issue relevant is the number of female coaches who undertook the study. Out of the sample, only 58 (26.5%) were female coaches; although this figure is representative of male female ratios within the youth sport domain it may have influenced results.

Partial acceptance of hypothesis H2 was presented, with some significant differences identified for two of the three measures. This suggests that the status of a coach may have some influence, an issue that will be examined in greater detail in subsequent chapters.

Practically, it is suggested that the current results have implications with respect to education and developmental experiences for community youth sports coaches. In addition, it presents a case for those operating in this arena to fully understand their role. As this stage of youth development plays a crucial role in sport participation (Baker, Côté & Abernathy, 2003; Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005) it is important that coaches have confidence in their ability to positively impact athlete development and have the skills to develop appropriate motivational climates for athletes (Jowett, 2008; McLean & Mallett, 2012).

Although the current findings offer some insight into the relationship between the measures used and the role of the coach, limitations exist: (1) Due to self-report mechanisms used it is important to acknowledge the generalised nature of the results. In addition, as the study was used to gather baseline data to support subsequent studies, the sample size was small (N = 218), therefore, although the sample comprised of community youth coaches' it cannot be classed as heterogeneous (2) Although, the present study did not utilise a dichotomous variable to measure coach education (see Malete & Feltz, 2000; Myers et al., 2011; Sullivan et al, 2012) it still used a hierarchical system. Rather than acknowledging learning to coach is done through a sophisticated combination of formal, non-formal and informal experiences (Nelson et al., 2006; Mallet et al., 2009). (3) The CMS (Fredrick & Morrison, 1999) has been criticised for its arbitrary appraisal of "why" people may coach (McLean et al., 2012) and that the scale only encapsulates intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation, rather than exploring all elements across the SDT continuum (Jowett, 2008). Subsequently a more effective measure of motivation, the Coach Motivation Questionnaire (McLean et al, 2012) has been developed, which if available at the time would have been

utilised; due to its more robust psychometric properties. However, as McLean et al. (2012) acknowledged, "to date (prior to 2012) only one scale has been developed to measure coach-specific motivation" (p. 186).

This study explored at three elements that are suggested to influence community youth sport coach roles. A question that needs to be examined is the importance of these elements for participant engagement at this crucial stage of development. This poses a dichotomy in relation to pedagogy within this important coaching context (Côté et al., 2007; Duffy et al., 2011). At present, due to the hierarchical system employed in relation to coach education, at times, it leaves coaches' who are not as confident in their abilities and less well qualified to develop technical, tactical and decision making skills with children at this critical time. There is a clear case for the development of effective knowledge and skills to operate with children in this context, something that is starting to be addressed within developmental frameworks associated with sport coaching as a profession (Duffy et al., 2011; ICCE, 2013). However, possibly of more importance, is the need to develop coaches' through context specific coaching opportunities that: (a) enhance their understanding and knowledge of youth sport, (b) provide them with the confidence and pedagogical skills to support participant learning, (c) give them opportunities to develop wider skills that assist the coaching process. This in turn may well provide coaches' with greater confidence and motivation to coach; but more importantly enhancing the experience of participants at a formative stage in their development (Baker, Côté & Abernathy, 2003; Fraser-Thomas, Côté & Deakin, 2005).

Chapter 4

Study two was designed to gather qualitative data to investigate the explicit and implicit roles of the community youth sport coach. The study explored how community youth sport coaches' operated and explored factors that may influence role development in multiple community settings.

The research aims were to: (a) explore how community youth sport coaches define their role or roles (b) analyse how their personal motives, coach behaviours and past experiences influence role perception, and (c) examine external factors that may influence roles.

Results from this chapter were presented as an oral presentation at the 9th Global Coaching Conference (ICCE) in Durban, South Africa on 11th September 2013.

Study two - The role of youth sport coaches in community settings: A qualitative data analysis

4.1 Introduction

Community youth sport coaching is identified as a domain in sport tasked with delivering complex social outcomes (Cronin & Armour, 2013). Coaches are expected to work in multiple settings, and engage with a wide range of participant types (Taylor & McEwan, 2012). Identified as a relational activity where coaches' have influence over the settings in which they coach (ICCE, 2013), evidence has suggested that to be effective, a coach needs to deal with complex social interactions that are influenced by the context in which they work (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Côté et al., 2007; Gilbert, Côté, & Mallet, 2006; Stephenson & Jowett, 2009). As such, the community youth sport coach role is not simplistic, coaches are important community resources (Griffiths & Armour, 2014), often working in chaotic and ambiguous environments (Jones & Wallace; Jones et al., 2010; Webb, 2008). They can be tasked to act as role models (Lyle, 2013), support wider social outcomes and life skills (Camiré, Trudel, & Forneris, 2012; Super, Verkooijen, & Koelen, 2016), deliver in school settings (Griggs, 2012; Jones & Green, 2015; Smith, 2013) as well as more traditional community sport environments (Flores, Beyer, & Vargas, 2013). These factors can lead to a situation where the community youth sport coach has to deal with multiple tensions and dilemmas (Barnson, 2014a; McCallister, Blinde, & Weiss, 2000).

Studies have identified that the effectiveness of a coach to engage positively with participants is influenced by a clear understanding of their role (Côté & Gilbert, 2009; Werthner & Trudel, 2009), and the investment in, and impact of learning on personal development (Piggot, 2012; Roberts, 2010). In addition to understanding roles, Côté et al. (2007) have argued that in the community youth sport context, a broad set of pedagogic, technical and socially orientated competencies are required. However, how coaching roles emerge and competencies develop are not always clear (Nash et al., 2008). Studies have

suggested the importance of coach philosophy, reflective practice and role appraisal as important mediating factors (Huball & Robertson, 2004; Nash et al., 2008). According to Irwin, Hanton, and Kerwin (2004) coach philosophy is based on beliefs formed as a performer and as a coach; with factors such as educational background and life experiences impacting on views held. Gilbert and Trudel (2001, 2004b) proposed that how coaches' frame their role is crucial. They argue that a key component of the coaching process is the ability to process and organise problems that warrant further reflection (Knowles et al., 2006; Knowles et al., 2001). Understanding what is important information, or what is irrelevant to a role assists an individual in constructing a functional reality (Schön, 1983).

Pope et al. (2014) have recently presented the argument, that in order to understand coach identity fully; there is a need to explore the meanings, values and importance coaches' place upon their roles. Winchester, Culver, and Camiré (2013) have identified that research to explore the distinct needs associated with coaching youth in community settings is still limited, suggesting the need for qualitative studies that explore the activities, actions and nuances associated with those who operate in community youth sport. Accordingly, the aim of this study is to explore current practice, trends and perceptions coaches' hold when operating as community youth sport coaches in the UK.

The research questions were: (a) how do youth sport coaches define their role or roles? (b) how do personal motives and experiences underpin and influence their perceived role? And (c) what external factors influence their role?

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Participants

A homogeneous sample consisting of twelve community youth sport coaches (male = 7, female = 5; M_{age} = 28.6 years, age range: 21-37 years) operating in various youth orientated individual and team sport environments ($M_{coaching\ experience}$ = 5.8 years, range: 2-12

years) consented to participate in semi-structured interviews; using criterion proposed by Gilbert and Trudel (2004b). That is someone who (a) demonstrated interest in learning about coaching, (b) was a good leader, (c) kept winning in perspective, and (d) encouraged children to respect the rules and their peers. In addition, it was deemed necessary that the participants worked within an appropriate community youth sport setting (club; NGB; school) and held appropriate qualifications and skills to meet the demands of that role. Table 4.1 provides details of practitioner experience and role within community youth sport coaching.

Table 4.1. Community youth sport coach demographic data

Coach	Sport	Coach Education	Coach Role
Individual Sports			
Coach 1 (F)	Gymnastics	Level 1	Volunteer
Coach 2 (M)	Swimming	Level 3	Full-time
Coach 3 (M)	Triathlon	Level 2	Volunteer
Coach 4 (F)	Athletics	Level 1	Part-time & Volunteer*
Coach 5 (M)	Tennis	Level 2	Part-time
Coach 6 (M)	Cycling	Level 3	Full-time
Team Sports			
Coach 7 (F)	Soccer	Level 2	Full-time & Volunteer*
Coach 8 (M)	Rugby Union	Level 2	Part-time & Volunteer*
Coach 9 (F)	Netball	Level 1	Volunteer
Coach 10 (F)	Rugby League	Level 2	Full-time
Coach 11 (M)	Cricket	Level 3	Part-time & Volunteer*
Coach 12 (M)	Hockey	Level 3	Part-time & Volunteer*

Note: *Denotes individuals who hold multiple coaching roles in different environments

4.2.2 Interview Guide

A semi-structured interview guide (Appendix C) was developed. This approach was taken to capture deep and meaningful information that explored the realities faced by practitioners, where participants can describe the problem in their own words, rather than within researcher imposed constructs (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The interview guide was

piloted with a community youth sport coach, to allow the researcher to assess language and question relevancy. Following the pilot interview minor alterations were made to some questions, in order to make them more descriptive and open (e.g. what would you define as your role in coaching?). The final interview guide consisted of five sections: (a) demographic information, (b) coach role, (c) processes within coaching roles, (d) the influence of coach philosophy, and (e) reasons for coaching. The first section was used to develop a rapport with participants and to gather demographic information, for example: age, gender, coach biography and education. The second question explored participants' understanding of their role. The third question asked "what parts of the process do you think are most important? This examined the perceptions, thoughts and feelings elicited by sport coaches to ascertain how they "framed" their role. The fourth question evaluated, in further detail, influences that impacted coaches defined their role. The final question, investigated motives coaches' had for participating as a community youth sport coach.

4.2.3 Procedure

Approval to conduct the research was granted by the researcher's University Ethics Board (FREC Reference Number 437/10/AR/SES). With consent from sport organisations, prospective coaches were contacted by the primary researcher to explain in detail what participation involved. Dates, times and convenient interview locations for participants were established; all interviews were conducted in-person. Prior to the start of each interview participants were asked to read the participant information sheet (Appendix D) and gave their written consent (Appendix E), were it was reiterated that their responses would remain confidential and anonymous. Interviews were recorded using an Olympus WS-32M digital voice recorder. Interview times ranged from 22-65 minutes ($M_{\text{interview time}}$ = 36.8 minutes). All transcripts were transcribed verbatim.

4.2.4 Data Analysis

Following transcription and member checks data were downloaded into NVivo 10 (Qualitative Solutions & Research, 2010). Data were thematically analysed using the processes highlighted by Braun and Clarke (2006) to establish trends or key themes relating to the research focus. Braun and Clarke (2006) identified six phases within this process: (a) familiarisation with the data, (b) generation of initial codes, (c) search for themes, (d) review themes, (e) define and name themes and (f) producing the report. This method allowed the researcher to establish patterns of difference or similarity in the categories of data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Patton, 2002), without overlooking critical exceptions. Through thematic analysis, the transcript content were analysed to segment the data into meaning units which were subsequently organised into data themes, higher order categories and general dimensions.

4.2.5 Trustworthiness

Following transcription, member checks were conducted (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Each participant was sent a copy of their transcribed interview for re-evaluation, in order to establish accuracy of their responses. Once interviews were transcribed and verified by participants, the researcher along with two anonymous colleagues reviewed them to provide an initial coding framework. Once completed, the researchers compared codes until agreement was reached on the generated themes, thus establishing inter-coder reliability (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). To provide appropriate coverage of the phenomenon being explored a criterion based homogeneous sampling strategy was adopted. Using procedures identified by Patton (2002), the purpose was to explore the sub-group in depth, but ensure the sample met appropriate quality assurance standards. Twelve participants were deemed to be appropriate based on the assumption that they undertook a similar role and had "similar backgrounds and experiences" (Patton, 2002, p. 236).

4.3 Results and Discussion

Results are presented in three general dimensions, identified as; positive attributes, developmental factors, and incongruent influences.

4.3.1 Positive attributes

Data identified a range of perceived positive attributes associated with undertaking the role of a community youth sport coach. Themes presented in figure 4.1 suggest that coach's value or understood the benefits of positive engagement with participants. As such, positive engagement with athletes was a universally accepted factor deemed to be fundamental irrespective of the type of participant interaction. This manifested itself in three specific areas: supporting and developing participants, the creation of an appropriate environment, and fun, interesting, but challenging activities. Participants identified the role coach motivation had in mediating the process of supporting and developing participants. *"Wanting to coach"* and *"doing a good job"* were cited as strong motivators for undertaking the role of the community youth sport coach. The importance of skill development, both in sport and through wider life skills are also suggested as positive drivers for coach involvement. Research that has explored the positive attributes associated with engagement in youth sport are wide ranging (Bailey, Cope, & Pearce, 2013; Denison & Avner, 2011), with multiple benefits being sighted through the process (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005; Lacroix, Camiré, & Trudel, 2008).

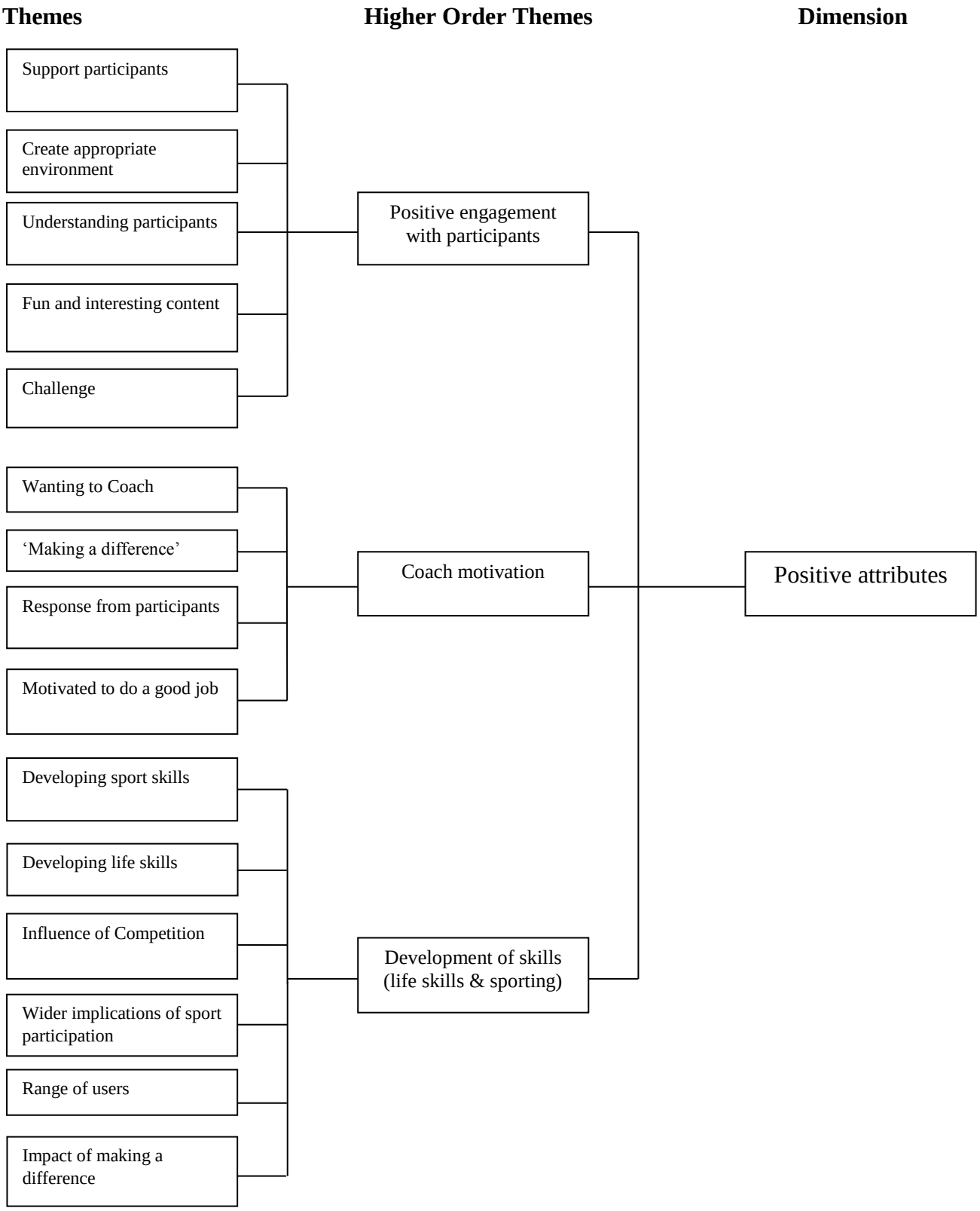
Comments, generally illustrated the importance of positive engagement and the creation of an appropriate climate to support youth. However, some responses presented an overtly generic approach to what positive engagement actually meant. Comments such as, *"facilitating positive experience(s) with the people who are in front of you"* (Coach G), and *"for me, it is about engaging with the group, making it fun and interesting, but also challenging them"* (Coach L) were commonplace. Previous research has identified, that

within this form of sport coaching, a common component is effective engagement (Nash et al., 2008; Pope et al., 2014). However, for less experienced or qualified coaches, the emphasis was on "safety" and "fun", (Bengoechea, Strean, & Williams, 2004), rather than deeper learning and skill development (Nash et al., 2008). This appeared to be a trend in the current sample, which in general, were aware of their wider role in engaging participants, but did not fully articulate the reasons or were vague to why these actions were carried out. There were some exceptions; Coach H presented their role as taking participants on a "journey", linked to long-term sporting outcomes:

"Well, we try and take new [redacted] on a journey, so we are trying to really inspire them to get them involved. As I said before, we're trying to get them involved in the world of [redacted] So yes, I would think trying to really get them involved in a sport and get them to a level where they are thoroughly enjoying the sports and they want to take, whether they take it further and they start [redacted] or [redacted] I think our main role is to provide opportunities for them to get involved in the world of [redacted] as a sport".

This suggests a pragmatic, but longitudinal approach to participant development, engagement and support, however it needs to be noted that the coach in question, was full-time and worked for a governing body of sport with a specific remit. As such, clarity of their role may well have better than others with multiple roles. Evidence has also supported the notion, that the community youth sport coach can play an important role in ensuring experiences are positive and sustainable (Bailey et al., 2013; Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Jones et al., 2011). Similar to other contemporary studies, the current sample presented a positive outlook in respect to engaging participants (see Ahlberg, Mallett, & Tinning, 2008).

Figure 4.1. Schematic of the "positive attributes" general dimension with qualitative data themes and higher order themes presented



A significant exception was the total omission or explicit recognition of developing an appropriate autonomy-supportive motivational climate. Studies have identified, the effectiveness of coach-initiated motivation as a mediator for increased participation (Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Jõesaar, Hein, & Hagger, 2012), positive task engagement (Feltz et al., 2009; Griffiths & Armour, 2013) and group cohesion (Eys et al., 2013). As such, developing an autonomous learning environment in youth sport has significant benefits (Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007; Gillet et al., 2010). Therefore, it appears to be a higher order trait that youth sport coaches need to be aware of, understand and implement.

The reasons and motivations highlighted for participating in community sport coaching were deemed to be a positive attribute. Data analysis identified that irrespective of the type of position held, altruistic motives were prevalent. There were some exceptions, but the overriding motives for undertaking the role were intrinsic. Coach B summed up their appraisal of their motives when stating:

"It's not for the money because it's not the best paid job. It's probably the only job I will do; I've always done through choice. I didn't really want to do anything else and I do enjoy it. Through everything that goes on I can sit down at the end of the day and sort of hand on heart say I've given those children 100%"

The word *"enjoy"* was articulated often to support reasons for taking part in youth coaching, Coach K presented their rationale for coaching, suggesting *"so I must enjoy coaching and I definitely enjoy seeing them improve and I definitely enjoy the feedback, just the verbal feedback off parents and players".* Whilst Coach C identified it as different when working in a voluntary capacity, *"yes, I really enjoy it actually, it's relatively stress-free whereas as I say coming from a teaching background, which can be quite difficult and there's other issues of organisation, discipline, which you're generally free of when you're coaching".* Therefore, it is suggested that data from this study presents similar findings to other studies that have explored the motives for undertaking a coaching role in community

youth sport. That is, coaches' appear to be motivated by doing a good job, making a positive difference and supporting youth participants (Carpentier & Mageau, 2014; Iachini et al., 2010; McLean, Mallet, & Newcombe, 2012).

The final sub-theme is related to an understanding and the implementation of strategies that support development of sport specific and wider life skills. From a coaching process perspective, sport specific skill development is seen as a fundamental coach role that has been examined through skill acquisition protocols (Williams et al., 2010), coach behaviour research (Cushion, Ford, & Williams, 2012; Lewis, Groom, & Roberts, 2014) and wider coach effectiveness principles (Becker, 2008; Côté & Gilbert, 2009; Pope, Hall, & Tobin, 2014). In community youth sport, research has also examined the role of the coach in developing wider positive youth development (Bodey et al., 2009; Flett et al., 2013). Data showed both these components were identified as important aspects of the role (Flett et al., 2012; Strachan, Côté, & Deakin, 2011). Exploration of the data yielded some interesting findings surrounding the perceived role of the coach in developing technical sport skills. Some of the comments were quite deep and meaningful appraisals, whilst for others there appeared to be a lack of depth and clarity. This suggested, from a coaching process perspective, different levels of understanding in outcomes coaches were aiming to achieve. Well-formed and articulated assessments of their role in developing skills were identified by two coaches respectively:

"It's getting them that skill base to move on and play down the line. Because if you get it wrong when they're young and when they're first learning the sport, it can be either...affect you in older age groups or you can drop out totally which, for me, I don't want to see that happen really"(Coach A).

"In relation to [redacted] *my sessions would probably include two roles; improving technique … improving technique and fitness but also increasing their enjoyment or their motivation to compete in the sport" (Coach C).*

Whereas, for other coaches, explaining the importance of skill development was more fractured; and dependant on the role, task and ages of the individuals they were working with. Coach I, was limited in their appraisal of skill development:

"Within three or four weeks we realised the teachers, in a way, wanted us to drill them a little bit more and make sure that the skills were a lot more specific than what we began giving them. Since that we've refined it to find a nice balance between the two".

This apparent lack of understanding appeared to manifest itself more with those individuals who were younger; less experienced and as such did not necessarily have detailed repertoires or experiences to reflect upon (Dixon, Lee, & Ghaye, 2013; Gallimore, Gilbert, & Nater, 2014). This is an issue that has been reported in previous youth sport coach research (Gallimore, Gilbert, & Nater, 2014; Gilbert & Trudel, 2004a). With studies suggesting that as individuals learn through social interaction, being able to make sense of meaningful episodes that impact on self-development (Callery, Werthner, & Trudel, 2012) as well as understand the role of reflection are crucial (Burt & Morgan, 2014; Knowles et al., 2005). However, as coaches only act upon items or issues they feel warrant further reflection (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001) reinforcement of the role skill development has in youth sport may be required.

In relation to the utilisation of sport to facilitate positive youth development, the information presented by coaches in the present study appeared to be more coherent. Coach L proposed that their role in the support of wider youth development was key stating that:

"Yeah I think it's always trying to build up relationships with the young people you're working with so some of the areas in [redacted]*, I worked more in the community settings, were quite hard areas to work in so it was trying to get a bit more on their levels".*

They go on further to identify that:

"In the community context, it's just the participation and community cohesion, so I've passed through quite a lot of community events, street games events, things like that where you obviously bring communities together".

These were assertions identified by others within the sample. However, it was also noted, that when working in this capacity, there were sometimes tensions between their role as a coach and the delivery of wider social outcomes. Coach A was quite forthright in their assumption that in some of his roles, actual coaching was limited:

"With the council, I'd definitely say it's more of a supervisor role if you like. In the schools …, I still see it as coaching because I'm still teaching them skills and getting them to develop as players. But with the council, I'd definitely say although I've got the title of coach, I'd say I'm more of a leader".

And although, they were aware of their role in developing wider skills in this scenario [working with disadvantaged children], they understood that the emphasis was on other attributes:

"Facilitator, yeah, that's quite a good one. Even though you try - particularly with the younger kids - you try to give them encouragement as you would as a coach, it's quite rare that you're working on anything skill-wise".

Clear evidence supports the role sport can have on positive youth development (Fraser-Thomas, Cote, & Deakin, 2005; Trottier & Robitaille, 2014; Vierimaa et al., 2012); with the coach playing a fundamental role in facilitating positive attributes (Flett et al., 2013; Morgan & Bush, 2014). However, it is identified that in order to develop wider youth development, coaches needs to explicitly and implicitly strategize how this is going to take place (Camiré et al., 2011; Flett et al., 2012). With further evidence supporting the assumption that there may be a dichotomy between organisational outcomes and the skills some coaches possess (Griffiths & Armour, 2012).

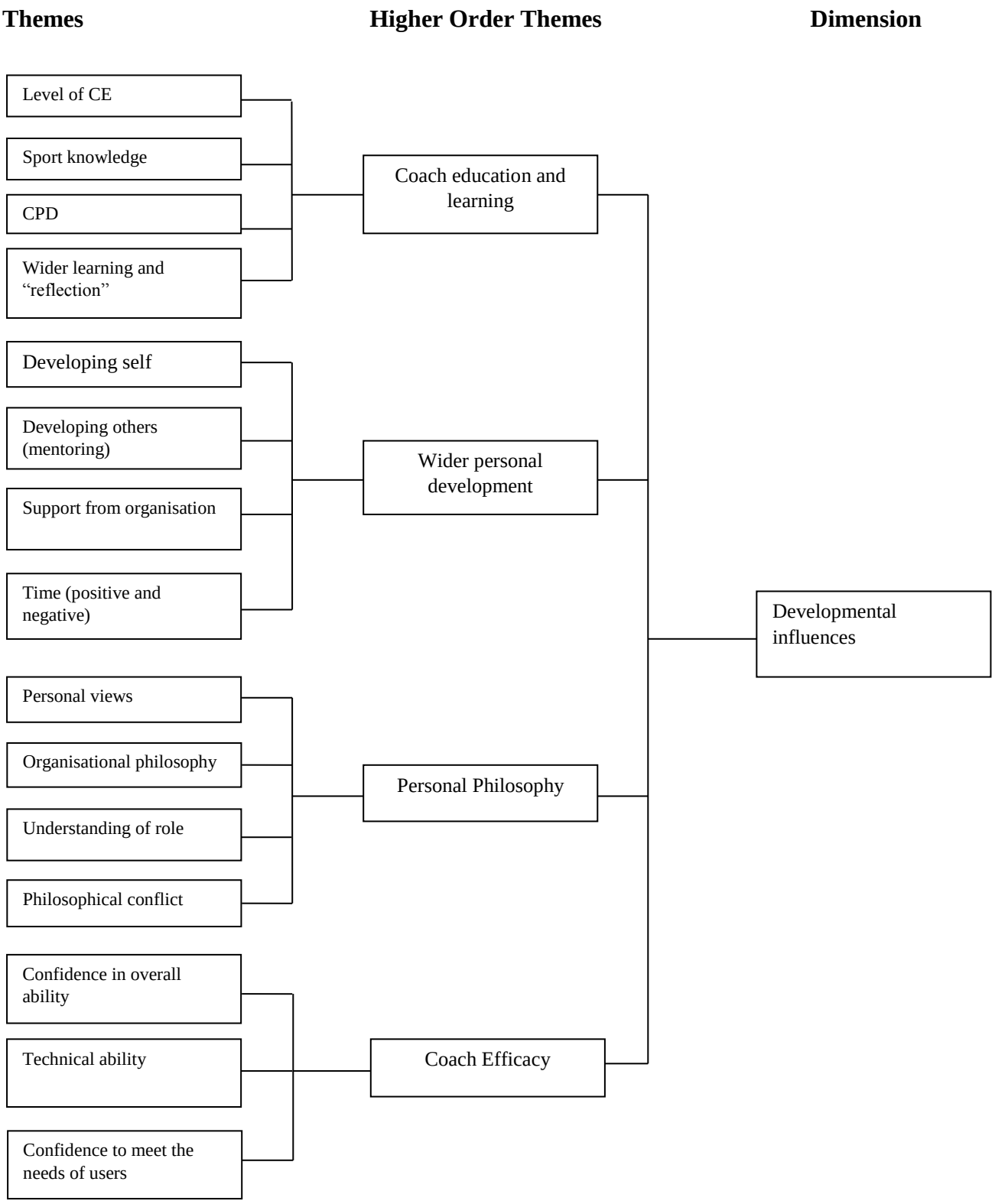
4.3.2 Developmental influences

The second dimension (figure 4.2) identified a range of items perceived by participants as developmental influences that impacted on their role. Four higher order themes were identified. The first theme explored the role of coach learning and education on their ability to carry out roles. The second theme presented the implications for wider

personal development and the development of others in the shaping of a coaches' role. Some items were seen as positive, whilst others were perceived as either neutral or negative. The results identified the importance of development of the self and others, but alluded to there being issues with it actually happening effectively. A positive finding in this setting was a general awareness of the need to develop personal skills through appropriate learning processes. However, variation in the way in which learning and development took place was apparent. Differences were identified in terms of input from organisations, the type of learning experiences coaches were exposed to, and the impact experiences had on the coach, participants and organisations. It was also acknowledged, that in some cases, coaches were supported by a mentor or support structure, whereas, in other situations, the individual supported or mentored others.

In the third theme, the role and influence of values was examined. Positive and negative items were identified. These were related to the role of the coach and perceived philosophical differences between individuals and organisations. The final theme in this category identified the importance of coach efficacy as a factor. Items surrounding confidence in technical ability, overall efficacy and the perception of meeting the needs of the end user were highlighted.

Figure 4.2. Schematic of the "developmental influences" general dimension with qualitative data themes and higher order themes presented



Different mechanisms on how coaches' learn have been posited (Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013), with learning broadly fitting on a formal-informal continuum (Nelson, Cushion, & Potrac, 2013). Research that has examined the learning dispositions and preferences of community sport coaches (Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Nash & Sproule, 2012; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007) identified coach learning as a personal and idiosyncratic series of non-passive events that support learning. The current data identified that multiple forms of coach education were deemed to be important in the learning process. Although different levels of understanding, awareness, and the appreciation of the role coach education played were identified. This suggests that the findings from this study are congruent with previous research (see Werthner & Trudel, 2006; Griffiths & Armour, 2013 Winchester et al., 2013). The role formal coach education had on being able to operate in the youth sport environment was illustrated, but not necessarily in a positive manner. Participants were aware that they needed to be "qualified" and looked to develop their formal coach education qualifications, but also acknowledged other learning opportunities. Coach H identified the positive role this had on their long-term aspirations and how it linked for them, to higher order coach training:

"I started when I was sixteen, just assisting and watching other people deliver. As I got to seventeen, eighteen, when I realised I would be able to take part in a coaching course level 2, I got straight into level 2 as soon as I was eighteen. Also whilst I was at college, whilst I was assisting, I saw some good quality coaching, therefore, decided the degree that I did (coaching), was probably best for me".

However, Coach A and Coach D had less positive experiences as gaining qualifications had implications for future employment. Coach D, articulates the organisational (and financial) implications associated with gaining higher order qualifications:

"I had the chance, not that long ago, to go and do my level 2 'cause the club said they'd pay for me and I turned round and said, I don't wanna do it….. Because as soon as I'm on level 2 you are overseen and overlooked [for paid work]"

Whereas, Coach A discusses their inner-concern of attending what they perceived to be sub-standard training to gain the "correct" level of qualification:

"When I did the course, it was a one day course [alternative sport]. With my [redacted], obviously I coached that for five years and I just never got round to doing level two so now I'm doing it just because...having done my [redacted] level two..... I feel a bit like a fraud really. Whereas I've got the experience, it's just now having that piece of paper with the rugby to say "level two coaches". Having done...I mean working through the process of the [redacted] level two, [the alternative sports] nowhere near".

With respect to continuous professional development (CPD) and wider coach learning, explicitly and implicitly, there were positive comments related to internal and external referenced learning opportunities. Coach 6, identified external influences that supported learning:

"I think the CPD programme I've received is fantastic and I think I'm very lucky in the role I mean and I have access to that. You know you're just constantly getting improved all the time and I think people around you all the time are very influential….."

Coach B, like others were more internally focussed in their approach to learning and in doing so, identified the long-term approach and experiences that had influenced their own personal development:

"I developed the skills to go into the coaching side and with [my sporting] background as well, that gave me the basics and then through education of myself and watching, listening and learning with other people from an early age as a coach".

The role of reflection within the process of wider learning was only explored casually; and was only identified by a small part of the sample (n=2) in an explicit manner. One of whom was quite clear that *"self-reflection and self-analysis is something that I've developed over the years, that's changed in terms of what I've seen and what coaches do"(Coach B).* Whereas, Coach A articulated the process in a genuine and realistic manner:

"One thing I've really started to think about since I've been back [at university)]and going through my level two on my [redacted], and even I suppose before a little bit, is thinking about what I've done and particularly once I started getting...once you get problems, you call it reflection, wouldn't you? Reflect on what you've done. But I think personally that's really

important. I don't write anything down. I'm not going to lie to you and say I spend an hour after every session writing down what's gone wrong and what's not, but in the kind of way I'll think, that was a bit crap".

However, as being a "reflective practitioner" is identified as an important facet within professional practice (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b; Trelfa & Telfer, 2014), the lack of explicit engagement in the process of reflection was disappointing. Marshall et al. (2014) have identified the significant value that deep and meaningful reflection has on practitioners' ability to deal with coaching issues. A process deemed to be a powerful way of examining coaching practice and as such, it can influence philosophy, develops intellectual processes and wider learning. However, evidence suggested that in this sample, it is not always an apparent, well-developed or effective process (Gallimore, Gilbert, & Nater, 2014).

The support of a mentor, or someone acting as a mentor was also identified as an activity that had developmental benefits. Coaches within the sample acknowledged the role this had in their long-term engagement as a community coach. Coach D, was especially keen to articulate the benefit of the relationship they had with their mentor:

"He's given me so much. When I went in for my level one, I knew everything anyway because he's given me so much knowledge. I think as well when he's got such a positive impact on me"

With Coach L, highlighting the benefits associated with acting to support younger, less experienced individuals. Where they perceive part of their role as acting as a critical friend as well as supporting wider coaching pedagogy:

"At [redacted] we have generally about six or seven junior coaches, a couple of them are qualified coaches and a couple are young leaders ranging from fifteen, sixteen year olds... And obviously they're working with kids up to five to eleven years old, so they can take on a different approach in terms... they can focus on relationships with young people" [as well as technical coaching].

Whether explicitly articulated, or implicitly referenced, coaches' were aware of learning from others. Although not always articulated in these terms, there was evidence of

formal and informal development structures in place, as well as some evidence of communities of practice (Culver & Trudel, 2008). As coaches learn through a variety of ways in this context (Cassidy, 2010; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007), the importance of developing the self and others, appears to be a pertinent area of development. Issues surrounding how this is supported by organisations and the time allocated to do this were also articulated.

The final categories of exploration, within this theme, are suggested to be interlinked. These relate to two specific areas, one termed *"coach philosophy"*, which defines the meanings, values and ethics coaches' place upon their coach practice. With the second being the coaches' confidence in their ability to carry out the role effectively.

Research that has explored sport coach philosophy is complicated and compounded by the majority of literature exploring the process of coaching, rather than the coach as a person (Devine, Telfer, & Knowles, 2016). Coach philosophy exploration and development is further complicated by assumed understanding of philosophy through coach education (Hardman, Jones, & Jones, 2010); whereas the reality is that coach philosophy is something that is rarely explicitly examined or developed (Devine et al., 2016; Nash et al., 2008). Studies have identified factors that may shape and influence the values coaches' hold within youth sport (Benny & O'Connor, 2010; McGladrey, Murray, & Hannon, 2010; Nash et al., 2008), citing factors such as ideology, knowledge and past experiences, and cultural frameworks that need to be considered.

In this study, items that influenced the meaning, values and axiological (stance) taken whilst coaching in the community were at times complicated. In some cases, the relationship between coach roles and the values placed upon them were clear and apparent, whilst in other situations; interactions lead to inner-conflict and practice dilemmas for the coach (Telfer &

Knowles, 2013). This was specifically the case, when individuals operated in multiple domains or organisations. Coach A, articulated his varied stance in two settings, working in a school for a private organisation and volunteering at a community sport club:

"In the school, it's totally about getting them involved with sport and teaching them skills so maybe if they don't like [redacted]*, maybe they'll think I still like sport, I'm going to go and play something else. So for me that's the bit. Whereas in* [redacted]*, the club still want [participants] to enjoy it, don't get me wrong, but we are sort of preparing for the game. Particularly with the older age groups, you're preparing them for senior rugby so it's a bit more results...they're results-driven".*

The role that organisational philosophy, values and expectations were seen by many to be a significant factor in the pedagogic processes involved in the coaching of youth participants. Evidence identifies the importance of developing an effective motivational climate to enhance experiences (Bailey et al., 2013). Therefore, linked to *"philosophy"* was the confidence to affect positive change in participants. In this sub-theme, three factors were articulated: the coaches' confidence in their technical ability, meeting the needs of the end user and overall confidence to do a *"good job".* Confidence to coach is a well-researched area of youth sport coaching, identifying motivational, technical and developmental areas (Busser & Carruthers, 2010; Feltz et al., 2009). Participants in the study, identified factors they felt influenced confidence in their ability. In some cases, the information presented was detailed and articulated well, whilst, for others, it appeared to be linked to values and meanings they associated with the role. Coach D, a relatively young coach, described it in quite simple terms, identifying coaching as: *"It is a bit of a hobby and it's helping with my experience and confidence. That's why I like doing it".*

Coach L discussing confidence being linked to experiences, and presenting a detailed synopsis of how that might influence practice:

"You see a lot of coaches that'll coach and if it's not working just keep doing it, keep doing it, keeping doing it, and you think well if they didn't understand it the first five times and the next five times then you've actually wasted half an hour when you only see them

maybe once a week.... it's having the confidence to stop and start again, it might take two minutes to set something else up, but actually its beneficial".

The scope and depth of the concept of coach confidence, was at times limited and not always articulated in an explicit manner, therefore it is a component that possibly warrants further investigation.

4.3.3: Incongruent influences

The final dimension (see figure 4.3), identified four higher order themes primarily seen as having negative influences on coach roles. This theme, relates to perceived barriers or incongruent influences that affect the ability of community youth sport coaches to complete their role effectively. Participants identified four fundamental areas: organisational expectations were sighted as an issue that not only affected the coaches' role, but also in some cases shaped the manner in which they operated. The complex nature of the role was also perceived to affect the efficiency of operating as a community youth sport coach, with conflicting issues, mixed messages, third party input and politics being identified as influential. The final factor, seen as incongruent was related to time pressure, which had inter and intra-relational implications. It is suggested that the legitimacy of sports coaching as a profession has had an influence on the role or roles, sports coaches are now expected to undertake (Cronin & Armour, 2012; Taylor & Garrett, 2010a). With centrally or locally funded sports organisations expected to meet or support wider community, educational or health related outcomes (Duffy, North, & Muir, 2013). As such, performance indicators and underlying legislation influence what and how coaches' are expected to deliver. In the sample, a number of participants alluded to the role "targets" had. This brought with it, positive and negative connotations. Coach F, identified that *"a lot of our work is within primary schools our focus is the primary age so we go into schools and we coaching there*

and we work within the curriculum so I think that makes our programme quite special" a point reiterated by Coach I who highlighted:

"At the moment it's hitting the criteria of the curriculum, what the curriculum says where they should be, whether they're below, above or expected. We devised our six week programmes around the curriculum, so as long as we're hitting the curriculum, pointing at curriculum areas, for me we're hitting the right areas and that should be high quality".

It was interesting to note, the assumption of quality or specialty through working within the confines of a curriculum. However, the role and quality of delivery of within primary school curriculum time by sport coaches is a contentious area (see Blair & Capel, 2008; Griggs, 2012). Wider aims and objectives were also identified, with the targets being set by external funding. Coach H was quite clear in their understanding of what was influencing their work:

"Sport England has moved their targets recently but it's from sort of 5 or 6 up to under 23s now, sort of 16, around that. So we can be working with a whole range. The main aim of the 14 to 16 year olds is trying to get them onto the next level of [redacted] *which is* [redacted].

They further expanded, to highlight how that might be achieved, stating:

"Now as a team, development team, we have targets to hit, so my targets would be to work with 8 schools or colleges or universities per year which is not much. That's delivering 6 sessions but on the back of that there is the club support work we have to do. We have some other work, we have to support the talent team coaches so these emerging talents".

This was a trend, which permeated the sample, specifically those individuals who were employed or funded through external agencies. As such, it had an influence on framing the environment in which coaching took place. Linked to working in these situations was the effect multiple layered interactions had on coaches' ability to carry out their role. It was articulated by a large number of the coaches, both volunteers and employed, who identified the need to meet third party expectations, organisations aims; as well as deliver appropriate coaching to the participants. They suggested that these complex social interactions had role

implications, but also the ability to influence others in a positive way via support and guidance (North, 2010; Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013).

Coach F highlighted the plethora of interactions:

"everyone that you've kind of come into contact with and it's the kids, is the parents, it's the teachers, it's other kind of development officers, its other companies who may see what you do and kind of take things from that. Yeah there are loads of people when you think about it".

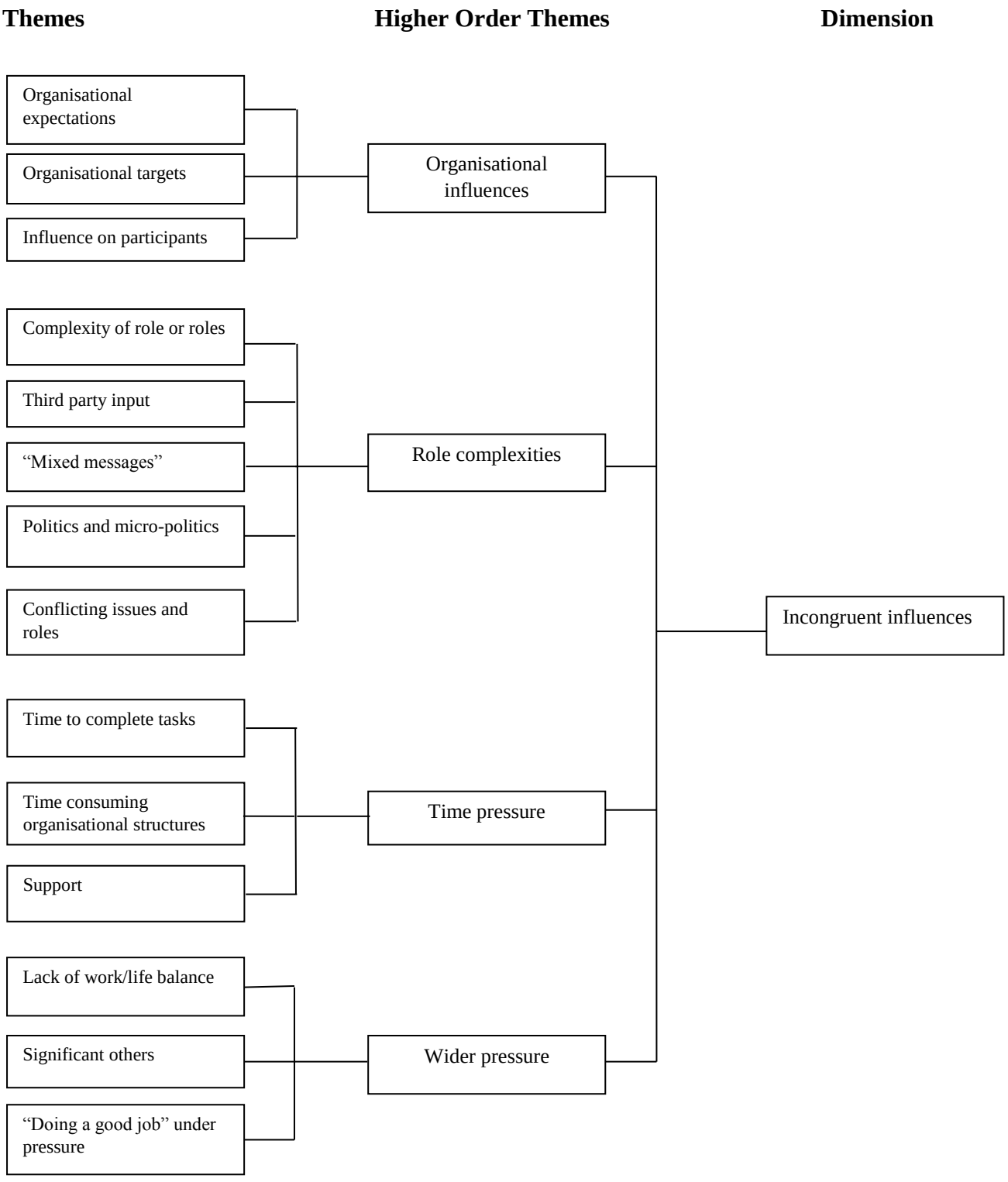
However, Coach B felt that it had the capacity to present negative effects:

"There is a lot of stress. There is some negativity and some of that comes through parents or organisations that you have to deal with..... Some of that comes through the constraints in some areas within the job".

These complex interactions were also perceived to be influenced by wider organisational factors. Organisational support and autonomous working environments were suggested to pose both positive and negative issues. In some cases, the working environment allowed individuals the opportunity to manage their own time. Whilst for other coaches, it formed an isolated environment, which only added to the complexity of their role. Coach H identified, that for them it was both, *"so we manage our own time, we manage our own [schedule] ... we have little input from our line manager just to make sure we are on target. So we are on our own. So that can be a plus and a negative to the job".* Coach I added to the autonomous nature by highlighting *"we set off on our own: we'll see you in the next meeting, sort of thing. There's no continued chat with the bosses, with my boss".* Coach G, was more pragmatic in their assumption, as they felt the isolated position meant significant issues associated with their ability to undertake their role:

"I think negative I'd say it's very...everything's very new, and because this role hasn't been done before it's almost like I'm writing the script as I go along. So there's been no template or guidance to fall back on or look at. So it's been very much learning as I go, which has been difficult sometimes when you're trying to plan on different events and the best way of doing things".

Figure 4.3: Schematic of the "incongruent influences" general dimension with qualitative data themes and higher order themes presented



The influence of micro-politics, inter-coach relationships and perceptions were also sighted as incongruent influences that had the capacity to cause role-conflict. Micro-political interactions manifested themselves in two ways, the interaction between individuals and the interaction between individuals and organisations. Interaction between individuals and organisations were suggested to add complexity overall, as it increased the variables that needed to be met. Coach C discussed the role an increase in size of an organisation had on their perception of their role.

"At the moment our club's been very informally run for years but now there's people who are trying to put a formal structure 'cause some of the [redacted] *clubs actually have a paid sort of structured coach, coaching, everything's set up, whereas ours has been fairly informal. So we're in sort of a strange … as the club grows and we have more and more coaches coming on board there is more structure coming into it".*

Coach G also alluded to this fact, but in different terms, as it was seen by them as ad hoc encounters at times. Illustrated by the fact that finances dictated delivery, *"I'm in contact with a coach who quite often will ring me when he's got a pot of funding and be like, "Can you deliver tennis at this school for this term?" So it can be quite sporadic like that".*

It was also acknowledged that at a coach to coach relational level, the micro-political climate caused complex interactions and perceptions. In most cases, where it was identified, it was just seen as part of the role, well detailed by Coach A, explaining the changes in staffing measures:

"I'm coaching with one guy who's leading [the sessions], but we have the titles of lead coach and assistant coach. We have two sessions on the afternoon, we'll share them so one leads one, and one leads the next. But I don't know whether that's going to change after Christmas because with new people, I don't know whether my bosses are going to be expecting me to take the lead a little bit with this kind of new role that I've got".

However, Coach E was very forthright in their assertion, that they were not being utilized in an appropriate manner leading to resentment:

"It's annoying because I've got the skills; I've got ideas; I've got the knowledge and if I'm going into the school, there's another coach there, she's higher than me, she takes the sessions. When there's the younger ones, when they don't participate, they come out and I have to go and sit with them and it's just literally babysitting. .... she doesn't really give me any roles".

As sport coaching in this context is deemed to be a social interaction (Jones & Wallace, 2005), deeper understanding of the impact micro-political interactions have on all parties is an area of research, that needs further investigation. One specific area, that warrants' investigation, is the differing perceptions presented through gender. In the sample, it was identified at times that in some cases, being a female coach was an issue. Not for the coaches, but primarily from third parties. One coach (Coach J) was very articulate in highlighting some of the issues faced. She identified:

"Yes, I think being female can be hard sometimes. To be honest, I've not had it as much in rugby league, but when you compare it say a sport that's quite mixed.....The fact that I am the only female coach probably in the [redacted] *at the moment that's still ridiculous because actually 40 per cent of that audience are female. But yet you've got the stigmas, I must be gay, I must be a lesbian because I'm a* [redacted] *coach, which isn't the case but that's just the assumption . At the same time you get kind of when you're walking through a door as well-being female or you walk in to a school and they've been told* [redacted] *are coming and the teachers often they get the boys in the class go, "It's a girl" and it is like yes it is, wow well done*

The final incongruent influence is pressure. This can be time pressure, or wider pressure placed on the individual through their role. Due to the nature of community youth sport coaching, it was suggested multiple pressures could influence the ability to do an effective job. This caused coaches to sometimes act in a reactive manner.

Coach G identified issues with numbers, which they suggested had to cause a shift in approach:

"And I had like 40 kids which was completely unexpected. But in those situations it's very much more about crowd control and management. So your role then shifts.....so it becomes much more about being a good manager of the time you've got with them in the session. So I'd say it's quite a dynamic thing that will shift depending on who is in front of you".

It was also noted; that pressure was also placed on individuals through organisations. Coach I, identified the issue of time and space, when they presented a synopsis of their working week within schools:

"I'm, currently working four and a half, five days a week, depending on which term. I get into school about nine o'clock, I deliver the entire curriculum PE for the whole school. Small schools take half days, full schools all day. If it's a full day, I'll probably deliver, depending on the school, four, five, maybe even six lessons if they can squeeze it in".

Identified by a number of the participants, irrespective of them being full-time, part-time or volunteer coaches was an element of time pressure associated with the role or multiple roles that they undertook. In many cases, this was volitional and seen as a by-product of community youth sport coaching. However, it was identified, that it had wider implications within other spheres of their lives. It was acknowledged that "doing it properly" was a time consuming activity; which had implications. Coach B summed up their commitment to youth sport coaching in their appraisal of their current involvement, *"I'm just a workaholic in terms of commitment to the sport. I've always had that same mentality. I'm not married; I'm basically married to the job"*. Although, not acknowledged, it could be deemed that this approach is not necessarily a good way to operate for both social, relational and health related outcomes. It appeared to be a trend within the sample, where the scope of engagement in community youth sport coaching had both explicit and implicit negative ramifications. Coach I, detailed their involvement as a volunteer, which is significant in terms of time and commitment:

"Thursdays, five hours coaching every age group back to back. We do primary schools together, then Years 7s and 8s, 9s, 10s, 11s and then seniors. Saturdays is occasional regional match and sometimes I work for [redacted] *on the weekends [as a coach educator], level ones and two delivery and Sunday nights at matches"*

This commitment was also alluded to, in relation to not letting people down, to the detriment to health, deemed by some, to be a regular occurrence, Coach G commented:

"that's the other thing as well, I always find because we're in schools you feel like you're letting the school down if you're ill, for instance. So I've worked when I was really ill and probably shouldn't have worked".

It was also acknowledged that engagement in community youth sport coaching also had implications for significant others (family, partners, relationships), suggesting that there needed to be a wider awareness of the time pressures associated with the role. It was seen by many, as being "part of the deal". Coach J summed it up when stating:

"Not necessarily relationships with other people, you just don't have the time. Like I'm single and I have been since I took this job, so it didn't really hinder like someone at home waiting for me to come home every night and stuff like that. But it has almost hindered me ever developing a relationship because when do I ever have the time" (Coach 7).

4.4: Conclusion

Through the adoption of a qualitative methodology and a homogeneous sample, generalisations of any findings need to have caveats. As sport coaching is identified as being context specific (ICCE, 2013), extrapolating findings to wider populations needs to be cautionary, with an understanding that there is a level of subjectivity in all qualitative approaches (Patton, 2002). The results and discussion were centred on community youth coaches, therefore any proposed findings or further investigation requires to be focussed in that coach domain.

The study aimed to explore how community youth sport coaches defines roles; investigate factors and motives that influence roles and any external influences that impact on roles. Data identified that the role of the community youth sport coach extended beyond participant engagement. It involved complex interactions to attain multiple goals and objectives (Duffy et al., 2013). Which was further exacerbated by some of the coaches

having multiple roles and operating for, or within different contexts; all of which have their own philosophies, meanings and values. As such, three salient areas are proposed that require further exploration: (1) exposure to, and learning to deal with complex issues (2) the role of reflective practice and experiential learning and, (3) role stability in community youth sport.

Jones, Bowes, and Kingston (2010) have identified that sport coaching is a complex process, in which practitioners are required to deal with contrasting issues simultaneously (Gilbert & Rangeon, 2011). This leads to a situation where practitioners may be required to deal with multiple goals, for multiple individuals in a restricted time period to attain a common outcome. As such, coaching can be "problematic and hard to manage" (Jones & Kingston, 2013, p. 215). In this study, coaches were exposed to a series of complex issues that they were required to deal with. For example, varied age groups, multiple objectives and working in different contexts. According to Denison and Avner (2011) coaching cannot be fully explored in purely logical or rational terms. As such, social, cognitive and behavioural variables mean youth coaching invariably is often ambiguous (Denison & Avner, 2011). To deal with the ambiguous nature of community youth coaching, Nash et al. (2012) have identified there is the requirement for coaches' to optimize their ability to solve problems and make effective decisions; as well as utilise different types of knowledge to support participant experiences and their own learning. Côté and Gilbert (2009) have proposed that to represent the complex nature of a coaches' declarative (knowing) and procedural (doing) knowledge, there needs to be an acceptance of the factors that influence and invariably underpin the coaches' knowledge base. It is suggested that a coaches' knowledge base consists of three specific elements, their professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). Research that has examined the impact of knowledge has had a tendency to relate more often to professional knowledge rather than the other forms, due to its perceived

importance in formal coach education programmes (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). However, as research into this area has accumulated, it is argued that having effective professional knowledge alone does not make a person an effective coach (Becker, 2009; Cassidy, Jones, & Potrac, 2009). Because sport coaching is an activity that does not take place in isolation, but involves temporal, social, cognitive and behavioural elements; research and practice points towards the need to interact effectively at multiple levels to support improvement (Mallett, Rynne, & Billett, 2014; Mesquita et al.,2012). As such, academic studies have highlighted the multi-directional nature of coach-athlete interactions (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Cushion, Armour, & Jones, 2006; Jones & Wallace, 2006), leading to the proposal that coaching is a reciprocally-influenced process and as such, coaches' need to "develop their interpersonal knowledge base so they can communicate appropriately and effectively with athletes and other people" (Côté & Gilbert, 2009, p. 310-311). Of the three forms of knowledge, intrapersonal knowledge is the area that has not been given as much credence in the sport coaching domain; as it does in other professional areas (for example, teaching and medicine). Although, fundamentally, being able to 'understand oneself and the ability for introspection and reflection' (Côté & Gilbert, 2009, p.311) are key components of the coaching process, it seems quite unconceivable that more examination into this area has not taken place.

Identified in Chapter 2, was the role experiential learning plays in developing appropriate coaching repertoires. With coach specific literature identifying that community youth coaches' learn best through a mix of methods and learning situations (Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Nelson et al., 2006). In this study, there are links between structures in place to support development, mediated and unmediated learning situations (Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013) and the ineffective use of reflection. It is suggested that differences come about through the environmental conditions that have influenced coaches' ability to learn experientially; and was related to time, working conditions and wider experiences.

Exploration of data, presented a situation in which coaches who worked in community youth contexts (in general) spent a proportionally greater period of time with multiple groups. This was a specific issue for those operating in schools, who could be expected to deliver four or five sessions per day. This was in contrast to those in the relative stability of single sport delivery, which enabled coaches to target specific opportunities for developing knowledge (Carter & Bloom, 2009) and reflection of their practice (Carson, 2008). This was proposed to be a different situation to the majority of coaches, were time with one group was limited, which lead to a wider and generic set of experiences on which to assimilate knowledge.

Possibly of more importance, is the way in which some coaches' in community settings were deployed, Wilson, Bloom, and Harvey (2010, p. 384) have highlighted that as coaches cited "their day to day [coaching] activities and their interactions with others in the sport context as major sources of knowledge acquisition", this leaves coaches who work autonomously at a distinct disadvantage. According to Trudel et al. (2013) as learning opportunities are reliant on cognitive structures and mediated, unmediated and internal learning situations. It is proposed that autonomous working environments are a limiting factor in relation to personal growth. As, in these situations, there is less of a mechanism to evaluate decisions with others (Carter & Bloom, 2009) or critique coaching issues (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, 2004b).

Implicitly linked to the development of knowledge through experiential learning, is the role reflection plays in the process. Identified in the data, issues arise with the effective use of reflection (Burt & Morgan, 2014; Peel et al., 2013). Unfortunately, results from community coaches that were interviewed, presented a case that suggested that their perception of reflection was either an "after thought", or an action carried out quickly between sessions, rather than an explicit, deep and meaningful process (Dixon, Lee, & Gahye, 2013; Peel et al., 2013). Cushion and Nelson (2013) have argued, that coaches' who

do not embrace reflection "uncritically accrue experience without it meaningfully impacting on their practice" (p. 363).

Data surrounding the stability of coaches' roles presented substantial differences. Results suggested a situation, where in the majority of cases, individuals had roles that fluctuated. Variables that affected the stability of roles were related to the patterns of delivery, environment and user groups coaches' were expected to engage. Examples would be coaches who worked in multiple settings (school, community, PYD programmes), where the end goal or outcomes of practice were socially embedded (Cronin & Armour, 2012). This can lead to a situation where coaches are required to act in ways that are counterintuitive with their values (Barnston, 2014b). Coaches in the community domain were also expected to work in a very dynamic manner, based upon the situation(s) they found themselves in. For example, situations arose in which spaces were changed, numbers of participants increased and staffing was altered at short notice. This meant that at times, they were expected to "think on their feet", and "act accordingly". Situations, that may lead to role ambiguity, role conflict or other role forms of role stress (Cope et al., 2010; Eys et al., 2008).

Chapter 5

Study three was designed to gather data to investigate the manner in which community sports coaches operate in the field. Adopting a holistic multiple case-study approach (Yin, 2009), the research explored the environmental conditions, behaviours and personal views community sport coaches hold with regards to their role.

The overall research aims were to: (a) explore the roles participants undertake in the field (b) evaluate how personal motives, coach behaviours, experiences and decisions underpin and influence role perception, and (c) examine any external parameters that may have an impact on the way they frame their role.

Chapter 5

Study three – Coaching in the field: A case-study analysis in community youth sport

5.1 Introduction

The role of the community youth sport coach is deemed to be multi-faceted and complex (Duffy et al., 2007; Nash, Sproule, & Horton, 2008), with an acceptance that clear understanding of practitioner roles being fundamental (Dixon, Lee, & Ghaye, 2013; Gilbert et al., 2009). Pope, Hall, and Tobin (2014) have argued that to extend academic coaching knowledge, situation specific research is paramount to explore both practice in the field and, fully understand how people coach in certain environments. Numerous variables in community youth sport have been presented as factors that may well illicit coaching issues, for example, level of coach experience (Gilbert, Côté, & Mallett, 2006), episodic delivery mechanisms and short-term objectives (Lyle & Cushion, 2017), and role complexity (Cronin & Armour, 2013). According to Barnston (2014b, p.371) this situation can lead to "multiple tensions existing as part of the coaching process". As tensions are deemed to be central to complex systems (Barnston 2014a; Barnston & Watson, 2009), coaches' may be required to deal with interconnected, but contradictory items simultaneously to sustain their role (Barnston, 2014a). Based on this premise, it is argued that in community youth sports coaching multiple pressures exist. However, at present there is a lack of research surrounding research in the field, to explore the impact of perceived pressure on role development.

One method used to explore and understand complex systems is case-study research. Patton (2002) suggests case-studies that are well constructed can provide context sensitive and holistic information that enables deep analysis of a problem. According to Yin (2012), this then allows the phenomenon to be studied in a "real-world context" (p. 5), with the purpose to gather appropriate, comprehensive and in-depth systematic information surrounding each case of interest (Patton, 2002). Furthermore, Yin (2009) identifies that the

use of case-study research has gained greater acceptance in multiple fields of study (for example, education, medicine and health, governmental planning, and social science research). In sport coaching, case-study research has been implemented, utilising qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Previous studies have in the main adopted single case designs and predominately explored either high performance coaching or coaching systems. Recently, the work of Annerstadt and Lindgren (2014), Callary, Werthner and Trudel (2013) and Lorimer and Holland-Smith (2012) all adopted qualitative single case designs to explore influences and values in high performing sport coaches. Hall, Gray and Sproule (2016) used quantitative behavioural analysis mechanisms to explore coach behaviours in elite rugby union. Explorations of systems and individual phenomena in sport coaching have also been undertaken; Nelson and Cushion (2006) used case-study methodology to explore the effectiveness of reflection in coach education, using a national governing body as the case. Fletcher and Streeter (2016) have also recently presented a detailed case analysis of a high performance sport environment.

Whilst the majority utilise single case design, there are examples of studies that adopt multiple case designs. Sharp and Hodge (2013) used case-studies with two coach and sports psychology consultant (SPC) dyads to illustrate psychological support structures in high performance sport, whilst Stodter and Cushion (2014) adopted a mixed methodology (behavioural analysis and interviews) using two cases to explore the social and cultural nuances associated with coach education practice. Lyle and Cushion (2010, 2017) have suggested the need to research coach practice in the field, they argue that at present pragmatic studies that capture the dynamic nature of coaching are lacking. Therefore, adopting a holistic multiple case-study design the current study aims to present a realistic appraisal of coach roles in the field. Moreover, the experiences are situated in the under explored world of the community youth coach (Cronin & Armour, 2013).

5.2 Research Questions

Using a holistic multiple case-study design (Yin, 2009) the objective of this study is to investigate community youth sport coach practice. The research aims are: (a) to explore the roles participants undertake in the field (b) understand how personal motives, coach behaviours, experiences and decisions underpin and influence role perception, and (c) examine external parameters that may impact roles. The research questions are: (a) Do perceptions, attitudes, conflicts, and behaviours influence coach roles? (b) What internal and external factors influence their role as a community youth sport coach?

5.3 Method

Adopting a holistic multiple case-study approach (Yin, 2009), the wider case context was identified as community youth sport coaching, with four purposfully selected typical case-studies (Patton, 2002) to represent the diverse range of roles involved in community youth sport coaching. The research avoided using model coaches, so that data identified the reality of working in the complex domain of youth sport (North, 2013) adding resonance to the study (Smith, Sparkes, & Caddick, 2014). Figure 5.1 illustrates the individual case-study organisation, identifying the context in which each case took place.

5.3.1 Participants

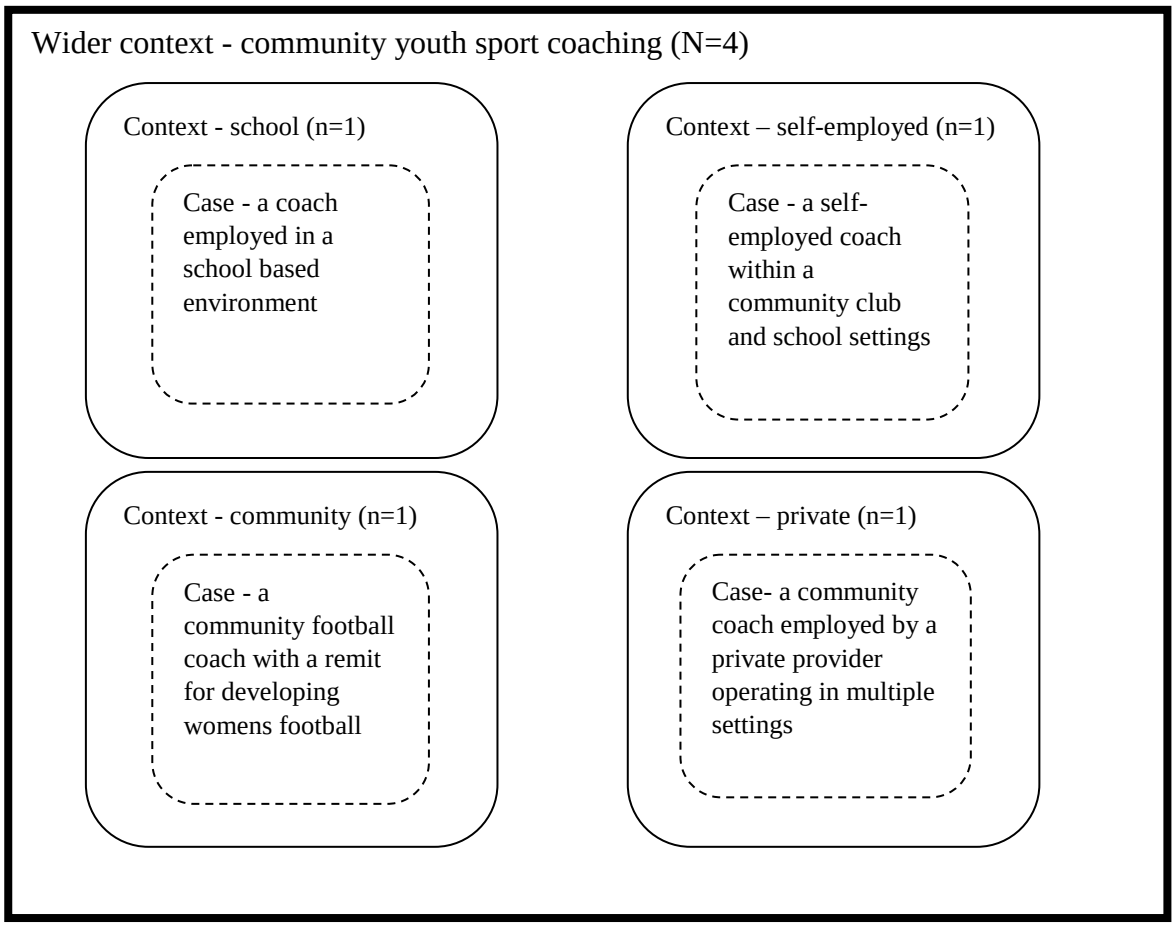
Four youth sport coaches (male = 2, female = 2; M_{age} = 32.75 years, age range; 21-45 years) operating within various youth orientated environments ($M_{coaching\ experience}$ = 15.5 years, range; 5-26 years) consented to participate in the case study. Table 7.1 identifies the demographic information related to the participant roles, coach education level and main sport.

Table 5.1. Study three community youth sport coach demographic data

Coach	Primary Sport	Coach Education	Coach Role
Coach 1 (F)	Gymnastics	Level 2	Full-time (Private provider)
Coach 2 (M)	Judo	Levels 3	Full-time & Volunteer (Club)
Coach 3 (F)	Football	Level 2*	Full-time (Community based)
Coach 4 (M)	Basketball	Level 2	Part-time (School based)

***** Denotes partial completion of UEFA Level 3

Figure 5.1. Holistic multiple case-study design matrix (Yin, 2009, 2012)



5.3.2 Procedure

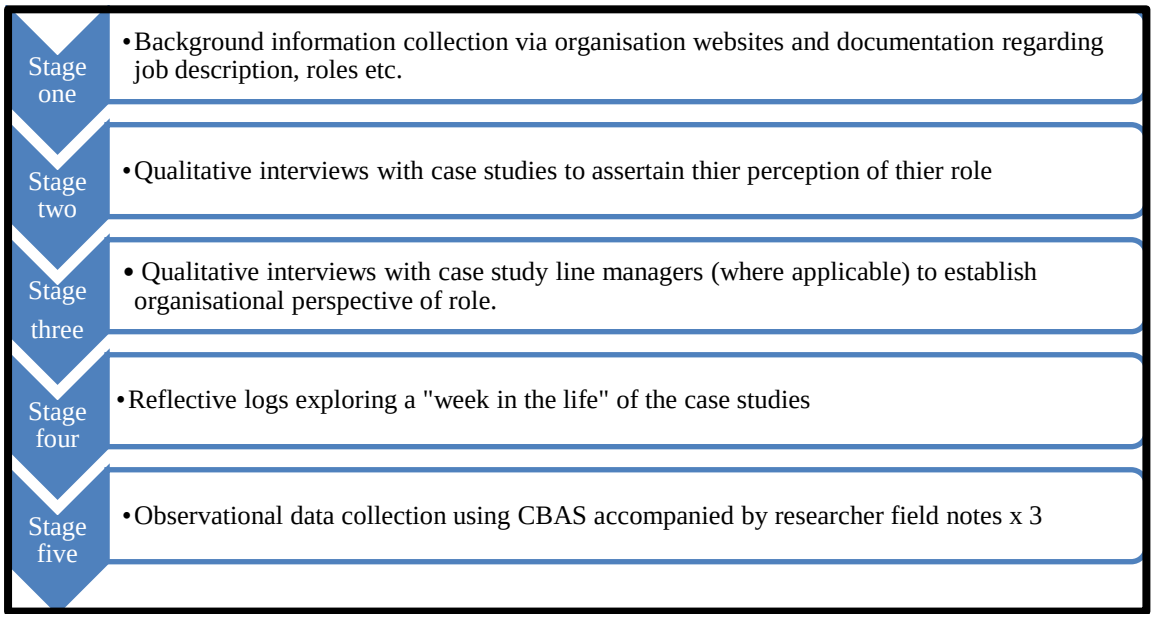
Using procedures highlighted by Yin (2009), multiple data collection points were undertaken to provide a coherent in-depth appraisal of the the samples perception of their role. Information was gathered in five specific categories: (a) qualitative interviews with

coaches (b) observational analysis of coaching practice (with researcher field notes) (c) completion of week-long "reflective" logs (d) background information and (e) qualitative interviews with coach employers/deployers. All participants and organisations gave written informed consent, with University Ethical approval gained to undertake the study (FREC Reference Number 829/13/AR/SES).

5.3.3 Data collection procedure

Data were collected through a holistic multiple case-study approach (Yin, 2009) on all consenting participants (n = 4) in community coach settings using the procedure identified in figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 Case method stages of data collection matrix



Stage one - Background information collection

With the permission from organisations, background information data collection related to coach role were carried out. This was to gain better understanding of the roles and activities coaches' undertook and acted as a baseline mechanism to undepin other aspects of

the study. These included: (a) job descriptions and person specifications (b) work programmes and key performance indicators (c) access to website information related to thier role (d) other information deemed to be appropriate and relevant to the case-study (Yin, 2009).

Stages two and three - Interviews with participants and organisations

Each participant was interviewed to explore their role perception. Interview dates and times were established, with interviews conducted in-person at a convenient location for the participants. Interviews were recorded using an Olympus WS-32M digital voice recorder, and subsequently transcribed verbatim. Similar protocol was observed for interviews with individuals identified as line managers, with the questions relating to their perceptions of the role of study participants as community youth sport coaches.

Stage four - Reflective logs

This phase, gave participants an opportunity to present a synopsis of the activities carried out on a day to day basis. Each coach was asked to detail a week in their role. Within the scope of the study, participants were able to choose any periods they deemed appropriate.

Stage five - Observational data collection and associated field notes

The systematic observation instrument used was the Coach Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) (Smith et al., 1977). This instrument enabled the researcher to record in-situ coach behaviours into one of twelve primary categories (see table 5.2). These are sub-divided into two classifications; reactive behaviours and spontaneous actions. Reactive behaviours are identified as behaviours that are direct responses to athlete behaviours (Smoll & Smith, 2010). Spontaneous behavioural categories are self-initiated by the coach and deal with items such as communication, organisation and general technical instruction (Cumming, Smith, &

Smoll, 2006). Smith, Smoll, and Cumming (2007) have identified that these classifications allow for distinctions between prompted behaviour (responses to clear stimuli) and emitted behaviours (behaviours that have less straight forward antecedents).

Table 5.2. Coach Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) classifications and definitions

Behaviour	Definition
Reinforcement	A positive rewarding reaction to a good play or good effort
No-reinforcement	A failure to reinforce a positive behaviour, the coach essentially fails to respond
Mistake Contingent Encouragement	Encouragement given to a player following a mistake
Mistake Contingent Technical Instruction	Instructing or demonstrating to a player how to correct a mistake
Punishment	A negative reaction, verbal or non-verbal, following a mistake
Punitive Technical	Technical instruction following a mistake which is given in a punitive or hostile manner
Ignoring Mistakes	A lack of response, positive or negative, to a mistake on the part of the player or the team
Keeping Control	Reactions intended to restore or maintain order among team members
General Technical	Spontaneous instruction in the techniques and strategies of the sport (not following a mistake)
Encouragement	Spontaneous encouragement which does not follow a mistake
Organisation	Administrative behaviour which sets the stage for play by assigning duties, responsibilities, positions etc.
Communication	Interactions with players unrelated to the game

Notes:
1. CBAS behaviours cited from Lewis, Groom, and Roberts (2014, p.3).
2. An additional component referred to as "transitional activities" is also included. This is defined as periods of time that fall outside CBAS categories.

Data were collected on three seperate occasions for each participant. Sessions attended by the researcher, were mutually agreed with participants to show the breadth of their respective roles. Data were collected in a live format, with the researcher identifying coach behaviours in-situ, through the use of CBAS, uploaded onto a Dartfish EasyTag©

panel on a Samsung Galaxy tablet (see Appendix I). This approach was taken to allow for easier access to coached groups (under the age of 18) and reduce any child protection issues related to video data capture.

Observational analysis examining coach behaviour is not a new phenomenon, as such; protocols and research are abundant in academic coaching literature (see Cushion et al., 2012; Roberts, Fairclough, Ryrie, & Sharpe, 2012). With the objective of systematic observation an exploration of the nature of coaching (Roberts et al., 2012) and to establish what actually happens in a coaching environment (Smith & Cushion, 2006). Turnnidge, Côté, Hollenstien, and Deakin (2014) have acknowledged that systematic observation has contributed to a better understanding of the coaching process, but have also identified the need to supplement its use with other methods. In this case, the use of field notes (see Figure 5.1).

5.3.5 Researcher and Instrument reliability

Previous studies incorporating the use of systematic onbservation have illistrated the importance of reliability (Ford et al., 2010; Lewis et al., 2014). As such, training that utilised the observational instrument was conducted. In order to reduce the impact of reactivity (behaviour change due to being observed), the observer acted in an unobtrusive manner, so that the coaches became accustomed to the presence of the observer within the sessions.

5.4 Data Analysis

Using principles outlined by Yin (2009), in this study data analysis will contain narratives covering each case as single units of assessment (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2009), with a further section exploring cross-case analysis and findings. According to Patton (2002), the researcher's formost responsibility involves "doing justice to each individual case" (p. 449), with subsequent relational validity being dependant on the rigour adopted and cross-analysis findings presented (Yin, 2012). All qualitative data was trancsribed verbatim. Transcripts

were then cleansed, with all identifying information redacted. In order to ensure anonymity, pseudonyms were allocated to each participant. Data from interviews, reflections and field notes were thematically analysed (Braun & Clarke, 2006), with quantitative exploration of coach behaviours used as a supplementary data source. Braun and Clarke (2006) identify six phases within this process: (a) familiarisation with the data, (b) generation of initial codes, (c) search for themes, (d) review themes, (e) define and name themes and (f) producing the report. This process enabled the researcher to evaluate behaviours, actions and percieved outputs; as well as gaining insight into role perceptions, role components and personal attributes. Additionaly, case-studies were examined as a group to explore any similarities, patterns and emergent themes within or across the sample (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2009, 2012).

5.5 Coach Narratives

Narratives are presented for each individual, which identify issues specific to that case and their coach role. Section 5.6 identifies where the issues may have been identified in other cases (see table 5.7) with a cross-case analysis adopted to explore synergy and differences between cases (Yin, 2009).

5.5.1 Case-study one "Lucy"

Lucy is a 24 year old coach, who works full-time within a private organisation; she holds formal coaching qualifications in multiple sports (UKCC level one and two). In her role, she works in multiple contexts. Primarily, this involves school based provision delivering sessions (in curriculum and after-school provision), the running of inclusive community sport club activities and school holiday activity camps. She has worked with the current organisation since leaving further education at the age of 17. She is deemed to be a lead coach and as such, is responsible for managing less experienced coaches and apprentices. Analysis of the findings presented three areas for investigation: the dualistic coach-teacher role; role behaviours and expectations; issues and dilemmas.

Exploration of the CBAS data identified some differences in exhibited behaviours depending on the context in which she was coaching. Figure 7.3, presents her results.

Table 5.3. CBAS Observational data - subject one

CBAS Category	Session 1 Events	Session 1 Category (%)	Session 2 Events	Session 2 Category (%)	Session 3 Events	Session 3 Category (%)
Reinforcement	57	8.42	30	7.21	41	8.60
No-reinforcement	34	9.05	27	13.42	43	15.04
Mistake contingent Encouragement	4	0.57	4	0.29	32	2.36
Mistake contingent technical instruction	33	2.65	13	2.18	65	13.63
Punishment	2	0.90	4	0.35	0	0.00
Punitive technical	8	0.39	15	3.16	6	1.25
Ignoring mistakes	4	0.20	3	0.45	0	0.00
Keeping control	28	6.21	17	10.38	7	1.80
General technical	51	10.10	16	4.28	33	7.74
Organisation	41	11.87	27	18.29	41	13.63
Communication	54	10.99	51	15.94	44	10.29
Encouragement	68	6.47	49	5.88	29	2.91
Transition	390	32.94	264	18.09	346	22.54

Note: Subject one observational data; $M_{\text{session time}}$ = 55.78 minutes, range: 45.54-71.27 minutes; $M_{\text{number of observed events}}$ = 327, range: 256-384.

Results identified differences in certain behaviours depending on the context in which she was coaching. Session one was a club session, where the she was responsible for other staff as well as her own coaching of a gymnastics session. Session two, was the unplanned athletics/multi-skill curriculum session to six and seven year olds, with session three a structured trampoline session. It is suggested, that she is more comfortable in sessions in which she has control, more experience and a targeted participant group. Differences were identified in certain areas relating to this proposition, namely differences in mistake

contingent technical instruction, where a figure of 13.63% was recorded in session three opposed to the figures of 2.65% and 2.18% for other sessions.

Role behaviours and expectations

As a community sport coach she was generally confident in her ability to meet the ethos and aims of the organisation. She was aware of what was expected of her and acted accordingly. She was able to interact effectively with third party organisations, parents and teachers at a local and professional level. These interactions enabled the coach to gain rapport and engage appropriately with key agents. This was highlighted in all three sessions that were observed. Although not explicitly stated, she had some understanding of the wider social implications associated with coaching in community settings. Linked to this point, was the coach's appraisal of her role in developing PYD in both school and community settings. According to Bodey et al. (2009) and Bolter and Weiss (2011), coaches' who have an appropriate repertoire to teach life skills enhance the efficacy, commitment and development potential of participants.

The dualistic coach-teacher role

A significant factor that was identified in this case-study, are issues associated with the subject undertaking a dualistic coach-teacher role (Richards & Templin, 2012). This meant that depending on the context in which she operated, there was a perceived impact on her identity. This impacted on her actions, behaviours and the expected outcomes from activities. According to Wilson, Bloom, and Harvey (2010), to achieve the dualistic coach-teacher role, there is a requirement to understand the differences in procedural, pedagogic, and curriculum knowledge. From her perspective, there was a clear demarcation around differences in the roles, where she identified, the different personas or outer-coaching self (Barnston, 2014b) that she presented. This meant different approaches to participant engagement. She sometimes saw her role as a teacher, where boundaries needed to be set,

whilst in a community setting a more open approach was taken. The way she is addressed was perceived to influence her behaviour and the coach-participant dynamic. When acting as a teacher: *"They all call me "Miss [redacted]" but then in after school clubs, we can be "Lucy" but I don't; I just keep it Miss [redacted].* She also identified, that her dual role had implications for participants also, with the possibility of role ambiguity. Articulated in the following statement

"I mean, a lot of kids do come in on a Saturday morning and they'll know me as Miss [redacted] and you'll see them, they'll come in and go, "Huhhh, it's Miss [redacted], our teacher!" But then as soon as I introduce myself, "Oh, my name's "Lucy". You're allowed to call me "Lucy" here," they see me in a different way then but they still know… on the day when I go in as Miss [redacted], "Oh, it's Miss [redacted]! She's lovely on a weekend but she's not so lovely here!" [Laughter].

Complex issues and dilemmas

Although so far, the narrative for Lucy, is one of an individual who is aware of her situation, and her role(s); there are issues and dilemmas that she is required to deal with. As her primary role is school delivery and makes up about 70% of her workload, she is expected to carry out a great deal of administration to support the delivery of activities. This factor is identified by Cronin and Armour (2012) and Griggs (2012), where it is articulated that substantial time and physical resources are given over to this aspect of the role. However, of more significance is the unpredictability of the role, specifically when working in schools settings, a point that was identified fist hand by the researcher, when observing the participant. On the day in question, whilst sitting in the foyer, an abridged version of the conversation was overheard: *"Hello Lucy, have you been informed that you haven't got the hall today because of exams? Oh! Did you also know that Mr [redacted] isn't taking his half; therefore he suggested you did something other than gymnastics!* As such, she was required to think on her feet and come up with a suitable solution to the problem, with only another assistant coach (apprentice) to support. Unfortunately, this was not an isolated incident,

which leads to a situation that puts the coach in a difficult predicament that is conflicted, challenging both personal beliefs and professionalism. This was however, seen as an occupational hazard:

"Yeah, well we tend to do… I mean, if there are any issues, we just have to sort of… the schools kind of dictates to us and we just nod and agree with it. I don't think they take too nicely to us, saying, "No! I'm not taking Reception! I'm taking Year 6!" We just kind of have to" [get on with it]

Due to encounters such as this, it is also suggested that there are difficulties associated with meaningful coach refection, as actions are required to be immediate with only time to "reflect in-action" (Picknell et al.,2014; Schön, 1987). A point which was identified by Lucy, who suggested a limited approach when she stated: *"On reflection: At the moment, I wouldn't really say that I do because I mean, I've been coaching it that long now".* A factor that has been identified in literature, which has proposed that for some coaches' the process of reflection is problematic (Marshall, et al., 2014).

7.5.2 Case study two "Karen"

Karen is a 41 year old and works full time in a football club community programme. She holds formal coaching qualifications in football (partial completion UEFA B licence; UKCC level three) and has worked in the organisation for nearly 26 years after leaving full-time education. Her primary role is the engagement and development of women's football within the club. However, she has suggested that her role has diversified into other areas, such as positive youth development, school engagement and working with vulnerable user groups (non-sport orientated). Data has suggested that there are complexities and nuances associated with how she has developed her role, with analysis presenting three areas for detailed investigation: coach pedagogy and player engagement; professional practice and; interaction with others.

Coach pedagogy and player engagement

Due to her experience and knowledge coaching women's football, it is suggested that Karen is able to draw upon her experiences to *"get the best"* out of the players she is working with. She stated:

"I don't think you should try and make anything too complicated and that's the way I've always looked at. I've always said that football is a simple game. You should be able to enjoy yourself, try and get better, but obviously it's how you put yourself across to that player and make them better".

She goes further to explain the intricacies and complexities associated with the role by identifying:

"It starts, for me, from the minute, if you look at our team... I can tell what mood they're in, what type of work day they've had, school or college day they've had, just by the way they walk across the car park. If they look sluggish, I know I'm in for a hard session. If they're quite lively, I know I'm going to be able to work them quite hard, so it's knowing those players, but don't forget, most of those older players, I've known them, they've all been in this club since they were 5/6/7. So, you know those kids inside out.

Being able to understand and coach accordingly is seen as a fundamental part of her role, which was represented in the observational data in Table 5.4.

Data identified differences in behaviours; depending on the context of the coaching. Sessions one and two, were girls football (under 10 and under 15), whilst session three, was an after school football session to seven and eight year olds. The first two sessions adopted a blended constructivist approach (Roberts, 2010), which allowed players to make decisions about the practices they were undertaking. Karen identified that she has adopted this approach through experience, as *"working with our first team or our junior teams, they're at different levels, so you're testing yourself all the time and you need to put them sessions on that were appropriate to that age group"*. But also necessity:

"We're only in a position to train once a week anyway, so it's getting that quality into that session, but, it's also keeping everyone on their toes, working to a level for the fitness and getting across things that you want to get across and them understanding it, but the whole group understanding it and understanding why we're doing it as well".

Table 5.4. CBAS Observational data - subject two

CBAS Category	Session 1 Events	Session 1 Category (%)	Session 2 Events	Session 2 Category (%)	Session 3 Events	Session 3 Category (%)
Reinforcement	112	12.58	55	8.75	27	5.78
No-reinforcement	50	17.76	49	23.70	31	14.33
Mistake contingent encouragement	20	1.08	14	0.94	1	0.03
Mistake contingent technical instruction	55	5.36	20	2.37	6	1.00
Punishment	2	0.44	0	0.00	10	1.09
Punitive technical	10	0.79	2	0.29	8	1.69
Ignoring mistakes	0	0.00	1	0.03	0	0.00
Keeping control	22	4.96	21	4.95	34	12.00
General technical	42	10.83	30	9.73	17	5.61
Organisation	32	9.97	18	5.77	27	27.50
Communication	45	9.77	49	19.20	51	14.83
Encouragement	150	7.44	83	5.25	39	1.76
Transition	586	19.02	351	19.00	262	14.36

Note: Subject two observational data; $M_{\text{session time}}$ = 59.33 minutes, range: 50.05 – 76.58 minutes; $M_{\text{number of observed events}}$ = 378, range: 251-540.

Well set up activities, with high levels of no-reinforcement are apparent in the first two sessions. As commented on in researcher field notes:

Activities at the start of the session, were used to get the group thinking, some behaviourist intervention, but only instigated to support decision making... As the session progressed, the coach set the parameters for practice, then observed. She made sure that she only intervened, when things broke down [after they had attempted the activities numerous times]. The coach asked some probing questions, got the players to think, so by the middle of the session, they were able to carry out a modified practice with high levels of success (Researcher Field Notes, Session 1)

Data identified differences in general technical percentages, control, organisation, mistake contingent technical instruction and reinforcement. From researcher observations, it is suggested, that Karen is a good coach when dealing with teams that she has invested

heavily into. This means that there are specific differences, not just in the approach, but the outcomes that are expected. This was not necessarily the case in schools, where: *"it's always about making it fun and enjoyable, so I always make sure that, we go there, know who you're dealing with to start with and then go along the lines of fun".* This situation was one she was comfortable with; but it was not necessarily her preferred coaching environment. According to Pope and Hall (2014), role prominence resonates with sport coaches, as they may well be required to differentiate activities based on the context in which they coach (Côté & Gilbert, 2009).

Professional Practice

In relation to professional practice, Karen was uncompromising in her assessment of what was needed. She identified commitment and self-motivation as key determinants. It was also articulated, that due to the wider commitments that were involved in the role, there was a requirement to learn and develop a wide skill set. She identified, that a detailed awareness of your participants in community settings was required; as well as the goals (enjoyment, health, social inclusion etc.) and expected outcomes. She identified that:

"Now, its things like, healthy eating, doing talks on respect, multi-skills... a wide range working with older people. We've had walking football on this morning. Disability and then the girl side of things, everything has changed massively. The scheme's changed. So, you have to move with the times really.....If you don't want to do that, time waits for no-one and you'll be swept under the carpet"

It was also identified, that Karen was aware of wider pressure, such as targets within projects that had to be met, linking her role to the outcomes of the organisation and wider partners. According to Brumels and Beach (2008), having a clear understanding of the basis for your work load, prevents issues such as role ambiguity, the possibility of role overload and burnout.

The final part related to professional practice was her commitment to self-development, which has come about through wide experiences and efficacy gained through her role. She has suggested that: *"I think you get more confident ... the older you get and you start understanding people".* She also identified herself as a reflective person, detailing that the needed time and space at certain times. Commenting on her appraisal of her working practice with her teams:

"Obviously I'll look at it and dissect it a lot more. Into areas that [I] feel that we need to work on or… I have my own routine on a training day or on a match day where I like to have my own thinking time and the team comes to you at different times"

As coach confidence (Feltz et al., 2006) and the ability to reflect effectively (Gallimore, Gilbert, & Nater, 2014) are seen as higher order skills in coaching domains. It is suggested that her understanding of these facets has an impact on player learning and development (Ermerling, 2012) and her own experiences (Nash & Sproule, 2011).

Interaction with others

As part of her role, she is required to undertake complex interactions effectively with individuals. This manifested itself in three areas. Of significant importance is interaction with immediate colleagues; a very tight unit. Consisting of four key players who form a nucleus, they are responsible for most component parts of the community unit. Having worked together in most cases, for over 20 years, it brings strengths and weaknesses to the organisation. As identified by Joe her line manager, workload allocation is quite organic in nature:

Yes, we do allocate sessions… with the girls football "Karen" tends to organise that, with someone else supporting when needed… [but] because we are a small organisation, no one's tied down to their job description, basically you just come and do what you have to do"

From discussions and observations, it was clear that all parties were aware of their roles with respect to PYD (Trottier & Robitaille, 2014), athlete development and acting in the role of a transformative leader (Morgan & Bush, 2014).

The second more implicit interaction was the formation of appropriate coach-player relationships. "Karen" was very clear on the boundaries especially with open age players: *"They know what I expect on a Sunday. They know what I expect on a Thursday at training, or in the summer when we train two nights a week, they know I expect them to be there and put the effort in".* However, she also acknowledged the wider implications of developing relationships, adding; *"you know you're just not a football coach are you? You're there to listen. I could probably write a book about some of the problems all our lot have had"* As such, it is suggested, that she was aware of her role responsibilities in relation to promoting an effective motivational climate (Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007) and to develop appropriate relationships with players of all ages (Jowett & Cramer, 2010; Jowett, Yang, & Lorimer, 2012). Finally, there was an understanding of interactions with the wider community (e.g. schools, wider sport organisations, parents). Some of which were mechanistic and administration based. Whilst other informal interaction with parents and significant others was linked to player well-being and development.

7.5.3 Case study three "Paul"

Paul is a 45 year old self-employed sport coach, who has dual roles; he works in schools in an Olympic recognised martial art (judo), through a franchised programme. This role occupies his time during the day, with further coaching commitments as head coach of a local community club. In this role, he supports athletes from novice through to expert, he coaches 4 nights a week, plus competitions and activities at weekends. He is a qualified senior coach (UKCC level 3) in his sport. He has been coaching for over 15 years and describes judo as "his life". From observing and exploring the roles "Paul" undertakes. Detailed analysis has suggested three areas for investigation: Role values and beliefs; roles differentiation; and participant development.

Roles, values and beliefs

First impressions suggested that Paul was an uncompromising character who had a very fixed appraisal of what his role was; however, as the case study progressed and developed, it was clear that initial assertions were misinformed. It became apparent, that he was a dedicated, reflective practitioner, who had clear beliefs and values that underpinned his role. When asked what motivated him to do what he did, he provided the following response:

"I know it sounds like a bit of a cliché, but I do like to see the player fulfil their potential. But even down to the little ones, if, when something clicks and they get it right… that gives me enthusiasm. Through to watching [redacted], who won a [redacted] medal at the [redacted] games, [they] started with me. I love it!"

When asked to specify his role, he was aware of the complex nature and interactions that were involved, where he identified the values that underpinned his personal beliefs. Suggesting his role was:

"to teach [coach] judo, but, again I want to evolve that person into a complete judo player, it's the mental side, the physical side. So, when I started in the club, I want to bring all of them [players and coaches]"

The comments highlighted have suggested that he had a good understanding of what he was aiming to achieve as a community coach. According to Gilbert et al. (2009) evolution of beliefs and values is brought about and shaped through an individual's developmental experiences. Leading to a clearer understanding of the stance and roles they have in coach settings. This is a situation that supports the process of becoming a more experienced coach through meaningful episodic experiences (Callary, Werthner, & Trudel, 2012).

The amount of time that he gives to the club is significant. Analysis of *"an average week"* presented interesting data, the excerpt, details two concurrent days:

***Friday** – No early morning class today as it was cancelled at the last minute and didn't have time to book another school in its place. First class today is a special needs high school 9.30-10.30am, must remember to take large kits with me. Next class is 1.30-2.30pm so I have some time to do some more banking, register my DBS, chase some schools, book some*

accommodation for a competition and training camp in Scotland for the club in Easter, orders the bleep test CD for training at the club and arrange an eye test for my daughter. A very busy after school class 3.30-4.30pm then off to pick up my daughter again for training at my club. Mats out at 5.15pm classes between 6 and 9pm. Straight home after as have to be up early tomorrow.

***Saturday** – Down to [redacted] today with a van load of kids for the [redacted] area age band competition, an important competition in the calendar of events as it is an identification event for selection to the England team. 7am start. Comp finished about 8pm back home ready to do it all again tomorrow!*

Role differentiation

Although both his roles are judo orientated and there is some crossover, it was identified through interview and observation that differences occurred. He identified that fundamentally, the work that he does in schools is his *"bread and butter",* which allows him to earn a living wage and to carry out his club role more effectively. Detailing what this entails in terms of logistics, time, planning and activities is another excerpt from his week:

***Monday** – An earlier start than normal today, off to the other side of [redacted]. 7.45am start, set up time 15/20 minutes, 40 minute drive, will need to leave home at 6.45am. Class finishes at 8.45am, need to pack away quickly as my next class starts at 9.45am back in [redacted]. A special needs school with moderate learning difficulties. Class finishes at 10.30am. Off to [redacted] primary in [redacted] for an assembly to promote the judo course for next half term at 11.15am. Back home for some lunch, while I'm there I need to chase some schools to book in, order medals for our next club competition and photocopy some entry forms. Leave home at 2.30pm to get over to [redacted] for a 3.30-4.30pm class. Get to my judo club for 5.15pm to put the mats out ready for some serious training. Classes finish at 9pm, mats away, take my Daughter back to her mother's house, and then back home for a snack and bed!*

As he is self-employed, he has to generate work that is primarily designed for and delivered in school settings. Consisting of 6 week blocks, the programme is "designed to increase confidence, self-esteem, concentration and discipline, improve health and fitness and give a "positive" focus" [taken from website]. As on average, he delivers three to four sessions per day, he does acknowledge that, *"the school work can get a little bit monotonous, sometimes; because you are teaching [coaching] at a very basic level… It's difficult to evolve the judo in a short course. But I see the role of the school work in getting them interested"* [in

joining a club]. It was also identified that different pedagogic skills were required in this setting, opposed to when coaching at the club. This is supported in observational data (figure 7.5), where differences are presented.

Table 5.5. CBAS Observational data - subject three

CBAS Category	Session 1 Events	Session 1 Category (%)	Session 2 Events	Session 2 Category (%)	Session 3 Events	Session 3 Category (%)
Reinforcement	80	14.15	33	5.16	61	3.25
No-reinforcement	27	8.81	76	22.55	62	26.81
Mistake contingent encouragement	7	0.19	22	3.27	27	1.47
Mistake contingent technical instruction	22	2.51	57	14.55	64	23.27
Punishment	3	0.16	4	0.13	7	0.44
Punitive technical	24	2.73	0	0.00	0	0.00
Ignoring mistakes	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Keeping control	48	17.34	26	8.81	28	2.65
General technical	27	16.56	19	14.57	22	19.39
Organisation	21	11.26	9	2.04	11	4.83
Communication	25	6.37	48	11.50	28	4.81
Encouragement	63	4.89	96	5.00	53	2.18
Transition	364	15.02	419	12.42	395	10.90

Note: Subject three observational data; $M_{\text{session time}}$ = 109.37 minutes, range: 51.54-201.48 minutes; $M_{\text{number of observed events}}$ = 357, range: 347-363.

Session one, was a school based activity, where greater emphasis was placed on re-enforcement of behaviours 14.5%, opposed to 5.16% and 3.25% in the other sessions. Significantly less time was spent on mistake contingent technical instruction, but more time on organisation and keeping control. This was different to sessions in the club, where it is suggested greater emphasis was placed on participant development than in schools.

Participant Development

Already identified, the main focus for Paul is to develop people to reach their full potential. This altruistic approach to coaching is well documented in literature (Camire, Trudel, & Forneris, 2012; Webb, 2008; Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007), suggesting that it forms a fundamental component for coaches who volunteer their time (Griffiths & Armour, 2014). Observed practice, field notes and comments from the coach, also suggest that this is the case. Similar to Karen in case-study two, investment is suggested to correlate with the engagement of participants, which influences his coaching behaviour. Exploration of empirical data presented a different pedagogic approach to that in school settings. Large percentage differences were found in three areas, mistake contingent technical instruction, no-reinforcement and control. Figures of 22.55% and 26.81% were reported for mistake contingent technical instruction opposed to 2.51% in schools. Figures of 22.55% and 26.81% were reported for non-reinforcement, with only 8.81% in school settings. Although no-reinforcement was given for large percentages of the time in sessions, it was not a passive act. With the coach either allowing younger coaches to take aspects of the session, but giving feedback when required, or was carried out to observe practice, then intervene when required. Studies that have examined the behaviours of coaches previously have acknowledged the difference between passive and active silence and non-reinforcement (Cumming, Smith, & Smoll, 2006; Cushion, Ford, & Williams, 2012). Due to the coach's expectations and standards whilst performers were on the matt, the time spent controlling the group in club time was minimal.

In terms of the quality of interaction, far more individual feedback, use of first names were provided in club sessions, leading to an environment that was supportive (Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007). A factor that is proposed to enhance self-confidence, improve engagement and prevent drop-out (Denison & Avner, 2011),

Instruction was not without issues. Paul sometimes got frustrated when participants who were capable, did not engage effectively, either through lack of motivation, or not grasping concepts. This was the case when an observation took place with a group of competent young teenagers. An extract from field notes, explains the situation:

At about the 30 minute mark, the coach spent a couple of minutes giving technical instruction on a series of moves on the floor. Clear explanation and rational was provided, accompanied by good demonstrations. Participants were then given time to practice, with feedback, reinforcement and technical instruction given when needed. However, from observation, it is clear, that the coach was not happy with some participants, as his voice changed, when giving feedback and instruction. His "annoyance" is directed at two groups [4 participants] in particular. As they don't seem to have grasped the concept fully! (Researcher field notes, session 3, subject 3)

When asked later, to expand on the reasons for his action, he identified two things. Firstly, he was frustrated that the individuals in question were *"excellent judo players"* and should have been able to *"master"* the task, but acknowledged that he needed look at his style of delivery. The situation was further compounded, when it was identified, that his daughter was one of the participants; which adds further complication to the dynamic. Research that explores athlete-coach/parent relationships, has identified the need for coaches to be mindful of the impact actions have on their children, but also others in the group (Jowett, Timson-Katchis, & Adams, 2007; Lauer et al., 2010). The final item related to player development, was the role Paul had as a regional coach and his relationship with the governing body for his sport. He identified, *"I have to deal with them [the governing body] for grading, competitions etc… I try not to get involved with the political side; I just want to get on with the judo. I want to teach good judo, but I also want to improve".* A comment, which is suggested, underpins his commitment to his club participants.

7.5.4 Case study 4 "Adam"

Adam is 21 years old and works part-time for an organisation that specialises in coaching in school settings (in and out of curriculum). He has been working for the

organisation for one year after graduating from a sport related degree programme. Since the age of 16, he has been involved in sport coaching in a range of capacities, having in the past worked on an ad hoc basis and volunteered in local community clubs. He holds UKCC level one qualifications in a number of sports with a higher qualification (UKCC level two) in basketball.

The organisation that he works for has a good local reputation, and an ethos related to positive engagement through sport and physical education. Their website states: *"You can feel safe choosing us as your partner in sports, we are very experienced and passionate about what we do and our teaching background serves us very well in understanding the requirements of schools and our colleagues"*. The key emphasis is on school delivery, with the term *"school sport specialist"* being used explicitly rather than referring to coaches who work in schools. Already identified, debate surrounding the use of sports coaches in school settings is prevalent (Griggs, 2012; Smith, 2013). Unlike other cases, it is suggested, that there is the potential for less role conflict as he only works for one organisation (Richards & Templin, 2012). However, it was acknowledged, that due to third party involvement [individual schools], the role is quite insular. His line manager commented: *"It can be quite a lonely existence, I'm mindful of that. It's a peripatetic type of role; it comes down to the character [of the coach] and their relationship with the schools".* Which they suggested had potential implications for clear communication, development and effective practice. When exploring what they thought the role of the coach was, they identified:

> *[The role] "is to support individual school needs, they [schools] can use specialist support how they want, for planning, preparation and assessment time [when teacher is absent], or to provide curricular support [teacher/coach working together], what we are clear on, is that they [coaches] need to meet [and have meaningful dialogue] with schools to discuss planning and what role they want them to undertake"*

Exploration of the data identified two key areas that defined his role, which are role perception and delivery of teaching, plus acknowledgement of his education (university degree).

Role perception

From conversations with the coach, he was quite clear in his own mind, what his role entailed. It was suggested that there was some synergy with the expectations identified by his line manager, but also some ambiguity surrounding the role. Exploring his workload, it was identified, that there was an expectation that he delivered four or five sessions in a day, he worked across five schools, with his main commitment in curriculum delivery. When asked to expand on what his role entailed, he identified three priorities (a) the teaching of physical education, (b) developing and supporting improvement in physical activity [this was a key driver and linked to his education], and (c) providing a different learning environment for children (outside normal classroom activities). However, it appeared as if there was disconnect between what *"good physical education"* was and what was delivered. When asked to explain, he identified: *"you are teaching sport, teaching the kids, it is nice to see them having fun and getting them to know the sports", but* at no stage, was there reference or acknowledgement of the national curriculum. According to Griggs (2012), this is one of the fundamental problems associated with coaches working in the sphere curriculum physical education. Where it is suggested, coaches have the technical skills to instruct sport, but not always the higher order pedagogic skills to teach effectively in the environment (Smith, 2012).

As this was his first year, he did acknowledge the challenges he had faced, stating, that [the role] had been *"a lot more intense "* than he had expected, but identified the support he had been given at times (from school teachers), specifically with regards to behaviour management. From discussions and observations, it is suggested, that he had good

relationships with most of the schools in which he worked. But identified that in some cases, physical education and sport were not particularly high agenda subjects, so at times, he was left to *"his own devices"* in respect to delivery. Discussing the freedom that he had, he explained, *"one school tells me what to do, with me having more autonomy in most other ways".* He also identified, that with respect to the actual organisation that he worked for, he thought of the schools as his employers, suggesting that *"bosses in my company, I would only go if school treated me badly or [for] contractual issues".* Although not explicit, there was a sense, that there was a perceived lack of role clarity involved with his deployment.

Delivery of "teaching"

Possibly of more importance to Adam was the actual delivery of the sessions and his rapport/engagement with the participants that he was dealing with. During observations, in one school over three separate sessions, it was identified that he utilised different strategies dependant on the task type and the age range of the children. It is suggested, that in general, he was good at engaging the children. A point supported by an independent session observation from his organisation which suggested:

"Most pupils make good progress and achieve the objective over time. There are consistently high levels of engagement and commitment to learning evident throughout the lesson. Behaviour was managed consistently well and improved throughout the lesson as a result. There was an exceptionally positive climate for learning"

They also identified:

"Excellent demonstrations were given by the teacher, children were also used appropriately throughout the lesson to demonstrate and show best practice. Group feedback and praise was very good, time was used well and [redacted] *had consistently high expectations of all pupils"*

He modelled his delivery on information gained from multiple sources, but identified his undergraduate degree as being most useful. He acknowledged that *"my university degree has helped. Imagining your lecturers watching. Would they be happy? This has shaped my*

philosophy". Research exploring the efficacy of degree education in various countries (Demers, Woodburn, & Savard, 2006; Nordmann & Sandner, 2009; Turner, & Nelson, 2009) has suggested the role that staff play in shaping experiences used to enhance both pedagogic and employment skills are crucial. This factor is perceived to have impacted on this subject.

He also identified himself as a good role model. According to Lyle (2013), being a good role model has significant benefits for youth, extending outside of sport itself. As such, Adam is also aware [to some extent] of his responsibilities. His emphasis on children having fun whilst carrying out activities has been highlighted as having wide social benefits (Bengoechea, Strean, & Williams, 2004).

There were some negative items identified, when the exploration of his delivery was undertaken. When asked about the components within the coaching process (see Abraham, Collins, & Martindale, 2006), discussion was very limited in relation to his planning and reflection. Which are both suggested to be given cursory evaluation, this may well have been down to the number of sessions that the subject was delivering, but also, a limited appraisal of the role that deep reflection can have on practice (Dixon, Lee, Gahye, 2013).

Data from observations presented a mixed picture regarding the effectiveness of his behaviours, but it is acknowledged that participants were undertaking different types of sessions. When working with different age groups, the emphasis of some aspects of their behaviours changed. Of the observed sessions, two were "traditional" structured sessions [one and three], whilst session two, was an attempt to adopt an alternate pedagogic approach. Differences identified were related to the age of the children in the respective "traditional" sessions. Mistake contingent technical instruction was higher for older children [session 3] 14.30% opposed to 8.64% for the younger age group, when asked to explain why he thought he used different strategies, he suggested that when skills were more developed, there was the

need to give clearer technical instruction. He also identified, that different approaches were needed when organising and communicating with the relevant groups.

Table 5.6. CBAS Observational data - subject four

CBAS Category	Session 1 Events	Session 1 Category (%)	Session 2 Events	Session 2 Category (%)	Session 3 Events	Session 3 Category (%)
Reinforcement	58	7.83	8	2.23	17	5.90
No-reinforcement	51	13.94	71	16.18	33	10.40
Mistake contingent encouragement	31	1.53	19	1.12	44	4.88
Mistake contingent technical instruction	38	8.64	6	0.21	51	14.30
Punishment	12	2.17	17	1.39	5	0.77
Punitive technical	1	0.16	5	0.45	0	0.00
Ignoring mistakes	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.12
Keeping control	37	12.78	53	20.57	24	9.48
General technical	17	9.00	5	1.39	5	8.77
Organisation	16	5.06	26	11.82	22	14.21
Communication	32	12.50	78	13.77	45	7.90
Encouragement	81	6.03	105	7.39	75	7.07
Transition	396	20.36	410	23.47	357	16.18

Note: Subject four observational data; $M_{\text{session time}}$ = 48.00 minutes, range: 43.37 – 54.18 minutes; $M_{\text{number of observed events}}$ = 363, range: 322-393.

He suggested it was *"easier to control the younger children"* and they were more prone to *"doing as they were told"*. The alternative pedagogic approach, caused problems for the coach. It was a game based activity, which was supposed to teach "game sense", but was not very successful. The premise for the session was to get the children to make decisions, but a significant period of time was actually spent controlling the session (20.57%) and on organisation (11.82%). As such, reinforcement was limited (2.23%), with limited technical support identified (mistake contingent technical instruction and general technical

instruction). Roberts (2010, 2011) highlighted that coaches can find the use of model-based instruction difficult and challenging due to formalised coach education being overtly structured towards technical input and instruction on "how to coach". "Adam" acknowledged that the session hadn't *"really worked",* but was not clear on what he needed to do in an attempt to improve.

An unfortunate part of this case-study is that the subject is not now a sport coach. High staff turnover in this type of environment has been acknowledged in research literature (Dixon & Warner, 2010; Kamphoff & Gill, 2008; Raedeke, Warren, & Granzyk, 2002). It was also identified as an issue for the organisation. From the perspective of "Adam", the role has been good for his development, describing it as a *"transition"* into teaching. He was accepted on a postgraduate course to become a primary school teacher.

5.6. Cross-case analysis

Table 5.7 presents cross case analysis themes identified within the study. Initial thematic analysis identified nine areas that were subsequently used to construct and discuss role themes from the sample.

Table 5.7. Cross-case themes

Cross-case themes	Positive/negative/neutral	Identified in case(s)
Exposure to complex issues	Neutral	1; 2; 3; 4
Professional practice	Positive	1; 2; 3; 4
Roles, values and beliefs	Neutral	1; 2; 3; 4
Motivation and passion to coach	Positive	1; 2; 3; 4
Pedagogy and participant development	Positive and negative	(1); 2; 3; (4)
Ability to reflect	Predominately negative	(1); 2; (3); (4)
Organisational and third-party interaction	Positive and negative	1; 2; (3); 4
Insular role	Negative	1; (2); 3; 4
Dualistic coach-teacher role	Negative	(1); (2); (3); 4

Note: ( ) brackets in identified case(s) denote a negatively focussed position

Exposure to complex issues

Jones, Bowes, and Kingston (2010) have identified that youth sport coaching is a complex process; where practitioners are required to deal with contrasting issues simultaneously (Gilbert & Rangeon, 2011). Coaching in this environment can be "problematic and hard to manage" (Jones & Kingston, 2013, p. 215). In all case-studies, coaches were exposed complex issues they were required to deal with. Although, issues manifested themselves in different ways, there was some synergy in relation to decision making processes. In all case-studies, coaches' were required to make decisions that implicitly and explicitly influenced the environment. However, as decisions are reliant on coaches' having detailed knowledge, experiences and understanding of those environments (Vergeer & Lyle, 2009) in some cases, the appropriateness of some decisions were questionable. Nash et al. (2012) have identified that there is the requirement for coaches' to optimize their ability to solve problems and make effective decisions (Carter & Bloom, 2009), as well as utilise different types of knowledge to support their experiences and learning.

Relationship with participants

Identified was the need for coaches' to develop an effective relationship with the participants they are working with. At times, this was strong, specifically when there was relational stability and longevity in the relationship; whereas, in school settings, it was more episodic in nature. Rocchi, Pelletier, and Couture (2013) have identified that the relationship between the coach and participants can provide a platform for numerous positive outcomes. Studies have evaluated coaching as a factor in developing appropriate motivational climates (Adie & Jowett, 2010; Keegan et al., 2010; Smith, Cumming, & Smoll, 2008), mediating the effectiveness of coach-athlete relationships (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Mageau & Vallerand,

2003; Rhind & Jowett, 2010) and enhancing the general well-being of participants (Gillet, Vallerand, Amoura, & Baldes, 2010). Additional studies have explored the effectiveness of coaches in supporting performance (Keegan et al., 2010; Weinburg, Butt, Knight, & Perrit, 2001), understanding the wider social needs of athletes (Lorimer, 2013; Lorimer & Jowett, 2010) and the role motivation has on long-term sport participation (Moen & Verburg, 2012; Olympiou, Jowett, & Duda, 2008; Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2010).

Organisational influences, support mechanisms and role stability

Organisations were seen to influence coach roles. These influences were prevalent at a micro and macro level; could be direct or via a third-party organisation. Fletcher and Scott (2010, p. 127) identified "whether they work in recreational or competitive sport…, coaches encounter a wide range of demands that accompany their role within the sport industry". Therefore, organisations that deploy coaches need to examine coach roles (Frey, 2007; Thelwell et al., 2008), for example, work patterns and workloads to minimise conflicting roles and stress (Woodman & Hardy, 2001; Olusoga et al., 2009).

Data surrounding the stability of coaches' roles presented some differences. Results suggested a situation, where in the majority of cases, individuals had a role that fluctuated. Specifically the case for Lucy, Paul and Karen, variables that impacted on role stability were related to the patterns of delivery and user groups. Examples would working in multiple settings (school, community, PYD programmes), where the end goal or outcomes of practice were socially embedded (Cronin & Armour, 2012). At times, this lead to situations where participants were required to act in ways that was counterintuitive with their values (Barnston, 2014b). Coaches in the community domain were expected to work under very dynamic conditions and react to situations they found themselves in. For example, unforeseen events arose in which spaces were changed, numbers of participants increased and

staffing was altered at short notice. Situations, that may lead to role ambiguity, role conflict or other forms of role stress (Cope et al., 2010; Eys, Schinke, & Jeffery, 2008).

Based on the results, it is suggested that mechanisms to support role development were limited. It was identified that in all cases coaches' were sent to satellite organisations to carry out their role. Invariably, this was as an isolated coach, or at best in small units. As such, coaches were not always in a position to gain guidance from others and were reliant on self-evaluation to frame their role. As day to day [coaching] activities and their interactions with others are cited as sources of knowledge acquisition, this leaves coaches who work autonomously at a distinct disadvantage (Wilson, Bloom, & Harvey, 2010). According to Trudel, Culver, and Werthner (2013) as learning opportunities are reliant on cognitive structures and [mediated/unmediated/internal] learning situations. It is proposed that autonomous working environments are a limiting factor in relation to personal growth; because there is less of a mechanism to evaluate decisions with others (Carter & Bloom, 2009) or to critique coaching issues (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, 2004b).

Learning through reflective practice

The capacity reflection can play in coach learning is well documented (Carson, 2008; Whitehead et al., 2016). It is proposed, that differences occurred in relation to the depth and time spent reflecting on practice or practices. Coaches who were better attuned to participant needs (Karen and Paul), were more explicit in their role on performer evaluation, which in turn lead to a deconstruction of coaching processes (Abraham, Martindale, & Collins, 2006). It is suggested, that those individuals were better versed in deep reflection, which can generate meaningful role enhanced actions (Burt & Morgan, 2014; Dixon, Lee, & Gahye, 2013; Peel et al., 2013). Cushion and Nelson (2013) have argued, that coaches' who do not embrace reflection "uncritically accrue experience without it meaningfully impacting on their practice" (p. 363). Unfortunately, data presented cases that suggested reflection was either

an *"after thought"*, or an action carried out quickly between sessions, rather than a deep and meaningful act (Cropley, Miles, & Nichols, 2016; Peel et al., 2013).

It is suggested that the complex community environment influenced experiential learning; and was related to time, working conditions and wider coach learning (Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013). Data evaluation, presented a situation in which most coaches spent proportionally greater periods of time with multiple groups. Specifically those operating in schools, who could be expected to deliver four or five sessions per day. Data also showed limited acknowledgement of planning and analysis being explicitly discussed. For some cases (Lucy and Adam), it was described in formulaic and overtly generic terms with acknowledgement of *"general session plans"* or *"schemes of work"* being used, rather than distinct individualised programmes that met individual user group needs. As appropriate coach repertoires play a role in experiential learning, with literature identifying that coaches' learn best through a mix of methods and learning situations (Griffiths & Armour, 2013; Nelson et al., 2006). Case-study subjects who were less hamstrung by schedules were able to which lead to a wider and generic set of experiences on which to assimilate knowledge.

5.7: Conclusion and limitations

The four case-studies have presented an interesting portrait of the tasks, roles and activities coaches' are expected to undertake. Exploration identifies some similarities. These include predominately intrinsic motives to coach, altruistic coach behaviours (Jowett, 2008), acting as role models (Lyle, 2013) and the development of appropriate motivational climates for participant development (Gillet et al., 2010; Keegan et al., 2010). In all cases, levels of professional practice were evident, with coaches aware of their role responsibilities to participants and organisations. Lyle and Cushion (2017) have identified that sport coaching fulfils a social function as part the wider sport sector; with Taylor and Garratt (2010a) having

highlighted that coaching has become an important element with respect to increased participation within society.

Cross-case themes identified scenarios detailing complex social interaction related to the coaching process (Jones et al., 2010; Jones, Edwards, & Viotto-Filho, 2014). For most coaches, there were insular working practices, the requirement to operate in multiple settings, often to support participants in a repetitive episodic manner. Findings also established the fluctuating nature of their role and at times, role ambiguity. Differences in the way in which information was assimilated and reflected upon presented contrasting findings, with it being suggested that the more experienced coaches were better attuned in developing pedagogic strategies to tackle coaching issues (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, 2004b, 2005).

Limitations associated with the study need to be acknowledged. Firstly, all case-study participants were employed in some capacity. As 70% of community youth coaches take on the role as volunteers (sports coach UK, 2008), case-studies who were purely voluntary may have illuminated the sector with more accuracy, although it is argued the current sample did account for a diverse range of community youth coach roles.

Secondly, according to Yin (2012) a challenge involved in case-study research is to understand whether findings can, or should be generalised. Concerns surrounding sample size are often cited as an issue when generalising case-study results, however, Yin (2009) argues that findings can be generalised on analytic grounds. It also needs to be acknowledged that each case had distinct features and that the narratives only provide a snapshot into their roles with the use of multiple sources of evidence, to triangulate the data (Yin, 2009).

Finally, it is suggested that the use of the CBAS systematic observational tool, did little to increase the efficacy of the study. There is an evolving range of literature that describes coaches' behaviour in training and to a lesser extent competition (Cushion, Harvey,

Muir, & Nelson, 2012). However, recent research, although not questioning the validity of the method per se, has identified limitations associated with its approach (Cushion, 2010, Cushion et al., 2012; Turnnidge et al., 2014). According to Horn (2008) systematic observation utilises counts and timing of behaviours, to identify "what coaches' do", what is missing she has suggested is "how" and more importantly, "why" coaches' elicit some behaviours over others. Harvey, Cushion, Cope, and Muir (2013) and Partington and Cushion (2012) have argued, at present, not only do coaches' have a lack of understanding of their actual behaviours, but also how this might change within different types of practices or contexts. As such, this becomes an issue in relation to understanding the implications of their behaviours for athletes, as well as understanding and framing their specific roles. This was the case in the current study, where emphasis on behavioural data only gave a cursory evaluation of coach behaviours. With objective data collected through researcher field notes giving greater detail, depth and understanding about contextual practice. In hindsight, although the researcher has used this methodology in another study (see Roberts et al., 2012) and this thesis, it is a strategy that will not be adopted in future.

Chapter 6

Chapter six is designed to synthesise the empirical data from studies in chapters three, four, and five. It presents a model that represents elements and boundaries that are proposed to influence how community youth sport coaches' frame their role. The synthesis outlines key findings from this research, explores implications for practice, and proposes future research directions.

Chapter 6 Synopsis of findings

6.1 Overview

The thesis aimed to explore the manner in which coaches' contextualise and frame their role. Using three empirical studies, a series of hypotheses and research questions explored role formation and framing in the under-researched area of the community youth sport coach (Griffiths & Armour, 2013).

1. Study one adopted a quantitative research design on a sample of community youth sport coaches (N = 218). Using psychometric measures data were collected to explore coach motivation, coach efficacy and role complexity in three independent variables. Results for "coach education" identified significant differences in all measures. For "coach status", significant differences were identified for coach efficacy and coach motivation. In respect to "gender" no significant differences were reported.
2. Study two used a qualitative research design on a heterogeneous sample (N = 12) of community youth sport coaches to evaluate: (1) how coaches define their role, (2) whether personal motives, behaviours, and past experiences influenced roles, and (3) to explore external factors that may have an influence on roles. Findings presented three general dimensions. The first "positive attributes" consisted of three higher order themes: positive engagement with participants, coach motivation and the development of sport and wider life-skills. The second "positive attributes" consisted of four higher order themes: coach education and learning, wider personal development, values and philosophy, and coach confidence. Finally, "incongruent influences" consisted of three higher order themes: organisational factors, role complexities, and role pressures.

3. Study three used a holistic multiple case-study design (Yin, 2009) to explore the roles participants undertook in the field. Distinct case-studies (N = 4) were used to evaluate coach roles and behaviours in different community youth sport contexts. Cross-case analysis identified in their respective roles participants were exposed to complex interactions. Positive areas were identified in respect to professional practice, passion to coach and developing individuals. Operating in and interaction with third-party organisations was identified as having both positive and negative outcomes. Whilst negative themes were identified in relation to working practices, for example, role conflicts, the impact of independent working patterns and the ability to reflect effectively.

Exploring how coaches' frame their role in community sport contexts has presented an eclectic range of elements that illustrate a complex working environment. Where coaches' are required to contextualise the values, meanings and actions they attached to roles. Detailed results from individual studies have been addressed in previous chapters of the thesis. Therefore, the final chapter is designed to provide a synthesis of the thesis to: (a) outline key findings from the research, (b) explore the implications of the finding for practice, and (c) propose future research directions.

6.2 Framing the role of the community youth sport coach

Duffy et al. (2011) identify the importance of appreciating domain specific outcomes in coach roles (for example, in community youth coaching, the engagement of children in sport, teaching fundamental movements and developing PYD). In addition, Denison and Avner (2011) argue coaching cannot be explored in purely logical or rational terms, due to social, cognitive and behavioural variables associated with practice. According to Lyle and Cushion (2017), the nature of a coach's role is dependent on them being able to conceptualise two components. Firstly, their understanding of the coaching process and secondly,

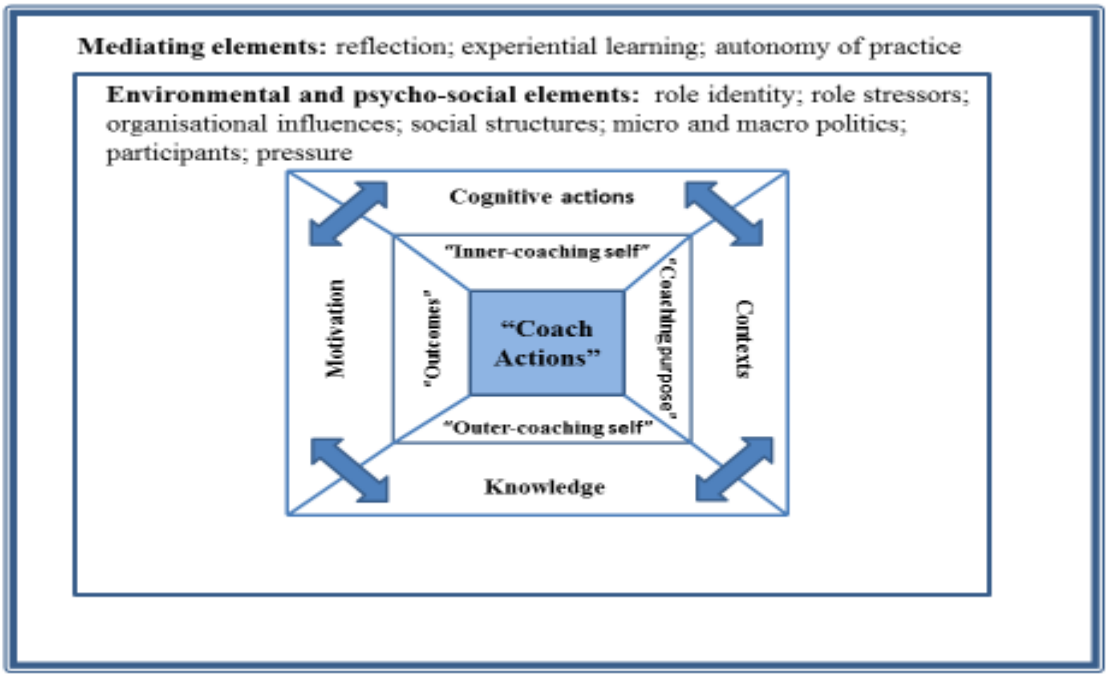
consideration of actions needed to put roles into practice. Therefore, how coach's frame their role is seen to be important in defining professional responsibilities (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b; Nash et al., 2008); as the framing of roles has an impact on how people coach, but more importantly on those who they coach (Vickers & Schoenstedt, 2011).

Identified in chapter 2, role framing is a perceptual process that creates meaning in any given situation (Edmondson, 2003). According to Schön (1983, p. 310) it provides a framework to explore "the ways in which they [practitioners] construct the reality in which they function". As such, it sets boundaries where actions on professional practice can be evaluated (PERRI, 2005). Based upon previous experiences, education and training and interpretation of their practice, role frames enable practitioners to make sense of their environment (Lyle & Cushion, 2017). With the implicit understanding being; how roles are framed influences reflective practice (Rein & Schön, 1993; Schön, 1983). According to Lyle and Cushion (2017) role framing can provide structure to an individual's practice, however there are issues associated with its purposeful development. In this thesis; it is proposed that the way in which coaches' frame roles is multi-layered and more complex than the findings identified by Gilbert and Trudel (2004b).

Figure 8.1 provides a model illustrating proposed boundaries and elements that influence role framing in community youth sport settings. In this context, roles are framed through multiple boundaries. Central to the model's concept is the premise that role frames are related to coaching practices. Drawing on the contemporary work of Barnston (2014a), it proposes that coach practice is regulated by five categories that represent essential components associated with the coaching process (Barnston, 2014b). The first boundary frames the interaction between the components identified by Barnston (2014b) and the coach's perceptions of their role. With the proposition being, coach perceptions and actions are influenced by knowledge and experience, coach motives, the use of appropriate cognitive

actions to support the coaching process and an understanding of the contexts in which they operate. Surrounding these boundaries is a series of psycho-social and environmental elements that have the capacity to influence coach roles. Finally, three interrelated elements mediate the process; enabling coaches' to deal with issues in their coaching (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001).

Figure 8.1 Model of perceived elements influential in the role framing process



6.3 Key Findings

6.3.1 Community youth sport coaching is a complex

Coaching in the community youth domain requires coaches' to deal with, and act upon complex interactions (Nash et al., 2008). According to Barnston (2014a, 2014b) coach actions are regulated by four categories essential to the coaching process. Defined as the inner-coaching self, the outer-coaching self, coaching purpose and coach outcomes (see figure 2.1). According to Barnston and Watson (2009), the inner-coaching self refers to interpersonal constructs, such as values (Devine & Telfer, 2013; Nash et al., 2008) and coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 2009) that underpin coach practice. For example, Myers et al. (2005)

identified that coaches' with higher self-efficacy scores, were found to use more positive coaching behaviours and have a greater number of athletes who were satisfied. In study one; higher mean scores for technique efficacy (7.33) and character building efficacy (7.43) were reported. As the focus of practice in youth sport settings supports player improvement, socialisation and personal development (Blom, Visek, & Harris, 2013), efficacy perception may be dependent on the value coaches' place on certain aspects of their coaching (Feltz et al., 1999, Malete & Feltz, 2000; Sullivan & Kent, 2003).

Data in studies two and three identified that practitioners had to balance conflicting values (Telfer & Knowles, 2013), depending on the groups being coached, or in some cases their perceived role in a given environment. Inner tension is suggested to exist when a coach has to fulfil multiple roles in a simultaneous manner. An example would be, a coach making a session fun; whilst at the same time providing an autonomous supported motivational climate for participants (Hampson & Jowett, 2014; Jackson, Grove, & Beauchamp 2010). Barnston (2014b) suggests tensions and value conflict can exist within elements of a category or between categories and other elements of the coaching process.

Outer-coaching tension occurs because of the relational nature of sport coaching (ICCE, 2013). Barnston (2014b, p. 374) identified that as such, coaches "create an outward persona that influences interpersonal relationships". As interpersonal relationships are seen as an integral aspect of coaching; issues associated with role clarity, links to wider objectives of a programme (for example, PYD or talent identification) may provide prevalent tensions. It is also acknowledged that tension may also occur due to the interplay of power relationships (Potrac & Jones, 2009; Rylander, 2015). Data identified that this was the case, with coaches' having to interact at all levels of the coaching process, with third parties and organisations.

Tensions are seen to develop based upon the purpose and outcome of any given coaching situation (Barnston, 2014a). Purpose related tension, according to Barnston and Watson (2009) incorporates two key principles, "how we coach" and the strategies used to underpin coach practice. As with other factors, these can occur between or within categories. Examples of this form of tension may be the use of innovative coaching methods over predictable norms (Harvey, Cushion, & Massa-Gonzalez, 2010; Roberts, 2010). Or actions that lead to the prioritisation of process over performance goals (Moen & Federici, 2013).

6.3.2 Fundamental components influence role framing

Because of the dynamic nature of sporting environments and the decision making processes involved, coaching is unstable (Lyle & Vergeer, 2013). As such, dilemmas associated with outcomes in sport coaching are unavoidable. Surrounding coaching actions (Barnston, 2014a) are elements proposed as having an influential relationship between coach actions and a coach's perception of their role. Research suggests that role appreciation is linked to cognition (Vergeer & Lyle, 2009), is influenced by expertise and knowledge (Abraham & Collins, 2011; Trudel & Gilbert, 2009), past experiences and reflection (Knowles et al., 2006; Trelfa & Telfer, 2014). Findings from studies have identified synergy with three of the proposed elements that form this frame, motivation to coach, coaching context, and coach knowledge with implicit links to the final element, cognitive actions.

Motivation to coach

Data from studies supports the assertion, that coach motives play a fundamental part in relation to how and why coaches' act, behave or think in community youth settings. Although not universal, there was a predominance towards altruistic motives that were intrinsically framed. Key drivers for coaching were seen to be the need to support player development and positive engagement with youth. These findings concur with results identified in studies by Jowett (2008) and McLean and Mallett (2012) who suggest coaches'

in youth settings tend to have greater resonance towards intrinsic motives. In studies two and three, there was evidence of intrinsically referenced motives. As coaches are acknowledged as architects in meeting goals and expectations of participants (Mallet & Hanrahan, 2004; Mallett & McLean, 2012), having altruistic values appears to be an important trait. There were some exceptions, in study one, results from the CMS (Frederick & Morrison, 1999) identified extrinsic motivation being a significant factor, depending on the status of the coach (either paid or volunteer). It may not seem unusual that paid coaches might have extrinsic tendencies. Of more importance is an understanding of motivational preferences and how this might influence how an individual frames their role.

Motives to coach, were identified as having an effect on the environment for participants. This presented a situation, where for some coaches, an understanding of developing an autonomous supportive environment (Keegan et al., 2010; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003) had a positive impact on coach-athlete relations (Jowett, Yang, & Lorimer, 2012). However, in studies two and three, clarity on how to achieve this was not always apparent; which is suggested to have implications for coach education practices and organisations that deploy coaches. Finally, in study one, based on coach education level significant differences in coaches' confidence to motivate participants was identified. With higher qualified coaches exhibiting greater confidence. As motivation efficacy is defined as a coach's belief in their ability to affect the mood and psychological state(s) of their athletes (Feltz et al., 2008; Sullivan et al., 2012), being able to influence this aspect of the coaching process is proposed to have positive outcomes for all parties.

Coaching context

A factor proposed as fundamental to how a coach frames their role is an appreciation and understanding of the context in which they operate. Even in the wider domain of youth sport coaching (Duffy et al., 2011; ICCE, 2013), the roles coaches' are expected to undertake

are multifaceted. According to Telfer and Brakenridge (2011), boundaries between roles are often "grey areas", where coaches are expected to deliver high-quality coaching experiences irrespective of the situation they find themselves in. Studies two and three presented clear evidence of this. At times, coaches' were required to operate across contexts simultaneously, or deliver multiple sessions to varied age groups. Studies presented an eclectic range of roles or multiple roles, for example, operating in schools, delivering sport specific skills, or using sport for PYD. In addition, diverse delivery patterns, the range of participant type and their motivations compounded the situation. As such, clear appreciation of role expectations reduces role stressors such as role-conflict, role-ambiguity and value conflict dilemmas (Telfer & Knowles, 2013). Examples from studies specifically identified conflicting values and actions. For example, how coaches' delivered episodic curriculum physical education sessions to groups they saw occasionally, opposed to working with participants who heavily invested in their club or sport. This was also the case, for individuals who operated in more than one capacity, for example, coaching for an organisation in a paid role, and volunteering in a community sport club. In these cases, there was a need to delineate and compartmentalise practice.

Although all these activities come under the banner of community youth coaching, evidence supports the premise, that specific sets of skills may be required to be effective (Camire, Trudel, & Forneris, 2012; Wilson et al., 2010). As such, coaches' needed to be cognisant of the values they hold in relation to the contexts in which they work and act in line with expected norms (Reade, 2010) and policies (see Telfer & Brackenridge, 2011). Richards and Templin (2012) illustrate that as (coaching) roles are not all identical, "it should not be assumed that they can be performed by the same individual without challenges" (p. 164). It is proposed, that responsibility in ensuring that individuals have the correct attributes to meet the needs of participants rests with the coach and those who deploy them. As a

greater understanding of domain related pedagogy will influence the education of coaches and align development and learning more effectively (Gilbert & Trudel, 2009; Nash & Sproule, 2012; Trudel & Gilbert, 2006).

Coach knowledge

Studies exploring coach knowledge have identified the need for a coach to possess subject, interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledge (Abraham et al. 2006; Côté & Gilbert, 2009; ICCE, 2013; sports coach UK, 2015). Demers et al. (2006) identified that knowledge is gained through past player experiences, immersion in coaching and formal/informal education experiences. Additionally, wider life experiences and socialisation are proposed to be influential (Callery, Wethner, & Trudel, 2013; Erickson et al., 2008). As perception of effective coach knowledge influences how coaches' frame their roles (Gibert & Trudel, 2001; Nash et al., 2008). It is proposed that explicitly linked to an appreciation of context, is a coach's understanding of any contextually relevant knowledge they need to operate effectively. For example, a coach may perceive they have the knowledge to coach basketball in a community sport club, however, not the knowledge to coach a specific group (e.g. individuals with a disability). Conversely, a coach may perceive they have the skills and knowledge to coach a specific group, but in practice their actions fall well below expectations. Gilbert et al. (2010) have suggested that to be an effective coach, there is a requirement to possess appropriate knowledge to support participant development, with the summation that good coach's "understand that they cannot improve by themselves" (p. 90).

Data in studies two and three, and to a lesser extent coach efficacy results from study one, identified that knowledge played some part in how roles developed. Coaches' who deemed themselves *"experienced"* were able to draw upon a range of meaningful vignettes or experiences (Callery et al., 2013). For example, some coaches in study two identified, that wider life experiences and other professional endeavours (e.g. teaching, working in sport

development, postgraduate education) were influential in the way in which they approached coaching. In studies two and three older individuals with more experience appeared to be more attuned to their role; whereas, learning *"on the job"* was identified in many cases. A critical issue for discussion is the apparent lack of depth illustrated by some participants. Specifically in studies two and three, for some, understanding group needs was taken for granted, and that learning to deal with complex issues was undertaken in a superficial manner; suggesting the need for coaches' in this context to frequently reassess their knowledge base.

Cognitive actions

Coaching has been hypothesised as fundamentally a decision making process (Debanne, & Fontayne, 2009; Grecic & Collins, 2013; Lyle, 2010). With cognitive actions and decisions influencing practice and form an important conduit to others involved in the coaching dynamic (Carter & Bloom, 2009). As such, any cognition implicitly influences actions (Lyle, 2010; Lyle & Vergeer, 2009). Lyle (2010) identifies that effective decision making is useful in situations characterised by "complexity, uncertainty, goal-conflict and time constraints" (p. 29), which fits well with the concept of coaching as a complex social interaction (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Cushion et al., 2006). Nash et al. (2012) also identify the requirement for coaches' to optimize their ability to solve problems and make effective decisions to support their experiences and learning. Studies two and three identified the need to make macro and micro decisions. Some decision making appeared to be informed (e.g. based on experiences, or was intuitive), whilst other decisions appear to be less informed. Therefore, results suggest that issues arise for coaches' who are poor decision makers as the process is reliant and underpinned by experience (Vergeer & Lyle, 2009). Finally, it must be acknowledged that decision making processes can be open to bias (Cassotti et al., 2012), with

emotion influencing the way decisions are framed. As such, decision making can be influenced by environmental and psycho-social determinants.

6.3.3 Roles frames are influenced by environmental and psycho-social elements

Roles are influenced by a range of environmental and psycho-social elements. Drawing on the assertion that the environment plays a key role in (any) action, figure 8.1 proposes elements that have the potential to shape and frame coach roles. These include: role stability and identity, stressors that impact roles, interaction with others, bounded social structures, and role pressures.

Variables that influence role stability appears to be related to patterns of delivery and user groups coaches' are expected to engage. Examples would be coaches who work in multiple settings, where the end goal or outcomes of practice were socially embedded (Cronin & Armour, 2012). It was also illustrated that at times, coaches' had to be pragmatic in their practice, due to immediate environmental changes. On more than one occasion, qualitative data presented cases where venues where unacceptable practice spaces or participant numbers were significantly different to expectations; situations that were sometimes counterintuitive to values (Barnston, 2014b).

From data, although not always articulated as such, both evaluative emotions and centrality of role prominence (Pope & Hall, 2015) were illustrated. For a number of participants, irrespective of the type of coach role they undertook (paid or voluntary), a coach identity wasn't just part of their life, it was their life. In some cases, this was positive, whilst for others, there were negative implications. For example, poor work-life balance, relationship issues and overload. In other cases, specific identities were not always clear, with data providing a casual understanding for some participants. Role identity is suggested to relate to the internalisation of meanings, values and characteristics perceived to be important to an individual (Pope & Hall, 2014a). As such, organisations need to be aware of,

and look to develop a "deep" identity to limit role stress (Brumels & Beach, 2008; Leberman & LaVoi, 2011) and loss from coaching (Raedeke, Warren & Granzyk, 2002).

In addition to the perception role identity has on the framing process, is the need for coaches' to be aware of the role they are undertaking (Webb, 2008). Data presented a situation, where some participants were required to carry out the dualistic role of coach/teacher (Richards & Templin, 2012; Richards et al., 2016), whilst for others, there was an expectation to meet multiple social outcomes (Cronin & Armour, 2012) or operate across varied youth sport platforms. Data identified that for some, this meant conflicting perceptions of their role, role ambiguity and overload.

A positive element was their perception of professional conduct, and what that entails. Studies present a picture that suggests irrespective of the role adopted (either paid or volunteer), universally coaching needs to adopt an effective "collective professional identity" which acknowledges the challenges associated with being an occupation (Duffy et al., 2011; ICCE, 2013; sports coach UK, 2008). Duffy et al. (2011) identify current weakness in relation to coaches' knowledge base (education certification and qualification), organisation (legislative recognition, licence to practice with on-going professional development, paid employment status) and ethics (autonomous and ethical decision making, self-regulation, and culture). Although at present, there still remains a considerable distance of travel in relation to sport coaching being an accepted professional area (Taylor & Garratt, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). Organisations that deploy coaches need to support development through rich and meaningful activities that not only support practice, but develop appropriate values (Telfer & Knowles, 2013).

Although altruistic motives for undertaking the role were prevalent in studies, there needs to be acceptance that for some, this caused pressure. This manifested itself in a number of ways. Time pressure was identified in studies, as were wider-life pressures and relational

issues involved with taking on excessive roles in the coaching environment. Two issues are suggested to exist, firstly, where does the responsibility lie in relation to articulating role pressure, and secondly, what are the long-term effects of pressure on individuals (for example, role-conflict, burnout and negative personal relations), on organisations (for example, retention in youth sport and role recognition), and participants.

The final influential element suggested was related to social interaction and the impact of micro-political climates in youth sport settings. Evidence from studies identified complex social relationships that had multiple layers, through which coaches were expected to navigate. Interaction and communication was required between, through and via organisations, with it suggested that for some subjects this caused ambiguity and lack of clarity, which at times left them in an isolated situation. It is suggested that greater understanding of the dynamic inter-relationships found in community youth sport settings has implications for coaches'.

6.3.4 Role frames are mediated by experience, reflection and working practices

For coaches' to be able to frame roles effectively, it is proposed that at the crux are three interrelated mediating elements. Edmondson (2003) notes that although frames are hypothesised as being relatively stable, there is the ability to re-frame situations through the introduction of learned experiences. As frames are used to organise experience (PERRI, 2005), and to interpret situations (Gilbert & Trudel, 1999), the quality and perception of role interpretations can be biased by poor, limited or irrelevant knowledge (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b; Nash et al., 2008). As such, experiential learning and in-depth reflection of practice mediate the role framing process. It is suggested, that coaches' who have a wide repertoire of knowledge, effective support structures and the ability to "get reflection" (Trelfa & Telfer, 2014, p. 47), are better placed to define roles.

However, studies in the thesis have suggested that at times, youth coaches act as automatons, have limited structures to support practice and only possess a cursory idea of meaningful reflection. In this domain, it leaves coaches' in a situation that was identified over a decade ago; that youth sport coaches are often left to their own to conceptualise and interpret roles (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b). To move "professional practice" on, it is argued that organisations who deploy coaches require structures to enhance the understanding and value of reflection, provide communities of practice environments and limit autonomous working practices. According to Knowles et al. (2014) to bridge the theory-practice continuum, it is important for practitioners to utilise reflection. As it is thought, "integrating prior beliefs, values and prejudices and social norms with theory and practice in this reflective process is thought to reconstruct professional knowledge... and develop a way of knowing-in-action" (p. 8). However, carrying out meaningful reflection is problematic. Peel et al. (2013) acknowledged that reflection is dependent on practitioner skills and resources, with the level of criticality given over to the process fundamental (Knowles et al., 2006). Dixon, et al. (2013) have suggested that current reflective practice in youth sport coaching is simplistic, despite calls for the contrary (Knowles et al., 2005). Suggesting there needs to be a move towards local targeted interventions to enhance knowledge of practice.

Linked to the role of reflection, is the need for youth sport coaches to have valued learning experiences that allow for growth and development. Identified in chapter two, experiential learning plays a significant role in defining salient information within the coaching process (Armour, 2010). As such, those involved in supporting, nurturing and mentoring youth sport coaches require to formulate strategies that provide appropriate context specific mediated learning situations (Côté & Gilbert, 2009; Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013). This allows individuals to determine the effectiveness of material and use it accordingly. According to Lyle (2010), for coaches to be able to make well-informed,

evidence based decisions (underpinned with appropriate knowledge and experiences), "reflection is required to actively develop this expertise" (p. 35).

However, evidence from data presented a situation where engagement in reflection, was overtly superficial. Lyle (2010) presents a case that has suggested effective decision making has implications for coach development. As "it is a learned capacity; can be improved through practice and that the pattern recognition on which it depends (on is context-specific" (p.35). To negate issues associated with autonomous working practices that are suggested to occur, investment in people is needed. Strategies to develop communities of practice (Stoszkowski & Collins, 2013), or provide bespoke coach development opportunities is required (ICCE, 2014; North, 2010; McQuade & Nash, 2015). It is suggested that appropriate structures improve communication, establish trust, link perceived roles to organisational aims, giving a more coherent message for all involved (O'Boyle, 2014). Models of practice do not require to be novel, as exemplar practices in more established professions are abundant (for example, case-study scenarios in medicine). However, these approaches would need to be tailored to the needs of coaches, as it is they who assimilate and determine the appropriateness of learning (Trudel, Culver, & Werthner, 2013).

6.3 Implications for practice

Whilst, there have been steps taken recently to develop sports coaching conceptualisation (Lyle & Cushion, 2010), there remains an imbalance between the applied coaching communities understanding of research and how findings may be used to inform and change practice (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). Therefore, the thesis suggests two implications on practice that have the capacity to support how roles are formed, developed and interpreted.

The first recommendation is the need of governing bodies of sport to be aware of elements that influence individuals to undertake coach roles. This is perceived to be significant in the voluntary sector. According to Nichols, Taylor, Barrat, and Jeanes (2014) Sport policy makers need to be aware of the influence a move towards the professionalization of sport coaching may have on role identity, how individuals perceive their role and how they frame their role.

Finally, and of significance in improving the quality of youth sport coaching practice, is the requirement for organisations who deploy coaches to be aware of the impact working practices have on experiential learning and development. Identified in studies two and three and supported by literature (Callery et al., 2013b; North, 2010), is the need to ensure meaningful coach experiences are used to develop wider coach learning. An example could be a young inexperienced coach working in community or school settings as a lone worker, thinking they are doing a good job; but delivering counterintuitive practices. If they feel their actions and practices are acceptable, or are not challenged by anyone, they would not perceive there was an issue that needed to be fixed. Therefore, a recommendation would be for organisations to evaluate working patterns and explore issues in practice. Through observations and providing support structures to develop experiential learning (Kim 2009), greater understanding of roles and behaviours would be achieved. This, if adopted effectively increases the availability of meaningful experiences available in the framing process. Examples could be, utilising communities of practice (Culver & Trudel, 2008; Culver et al., 2009) to explore common themes and issues in specific contexts. Or through providing mentor support (see Jones et al., 2009), especially in settings where autonomous working practices are prevalent. These interventions could enable knowledge transfer through experiential learning and provide a more effective platform to carry out meaningful reflection (Cropley, Miles, & Nichols, 2016).

6.4 Implications for future research

The thesis has provided an exploration of elements that may impact on how coaches' frame their roles in community youth sport. However, due to the scope and methodologies used, limitations arise. Therefore, generalisation of results is difficult (Patton, 2002). To explore the subject in greater detail further research is needed. According to Lyle and Cushion (2017), to research the contextual nature of sport coaching, defining and delimiting role expectations is crucial. In the domain of the youth sport coach, future research direction needs to take into consideration nuanced conditions for practice. Therefore, from a personal perspective, in this under-researched area (Griffiths & Armour, 2013), following on from current studies it is proposed that research could include the following:

1. In the current pseudo-professional climate (Taylor & Garratt, 2010a), it is suggested that there is a need for greater evaluation of coach role parameters and quality of practice in primary school environments. Current research in the area, has tended to be dismissive of the role of the coach in this setting (Griggs, 2012; Jones & Green, 2015; Smith, 2013); in particular curriculum delivery has been scrutinised. However, very little has been done to assess the specific needs of coaches' in this environment in relation to training, experiential learning or wider skill development. Although it appears that coaches' play a significant role in the new primary PE orthodoxy (Smith, 2013), at present, it is taken for granted that all can undertake these roles.
2. More examination of role formation and development in volunteer settings would be beneficial. As volunteer coaches make up a significant part of the UK coaching workforce (Nichols et al., 2014; sports coach UK, 2015; Trussall, 2016) a greater understanding of the motives for volunteering could have implications for coach education, wider training and development. In addition, action-research studies in

specific organisations could provide both bespoke and model interventions that could provide best practice case-studies (McQuade & Nash, 2015).

3. It is suggested, that longitudinal studies are required to look at the long-term development of coach roles; and to explore any cultural, social or environmental elements that influence development. These studies need to be bespoke to groups and contexts. For example, do coaches' in community disability scenarios frame roles differently?
4. More research needs to be carried out "in the field". Such as, extending the work of Hall et al. (2015) through exploration of role identity as an underpinning concept in contextually relevant settings would benefit an understanding of why some people identify and undertake roles in specific settings. Using ethnographic research in this area (Mills, 2015) may provide useful cases for investigation.
5. Strategies that enhance the ability of coaches to reflect need to be continued. Whitehead et al. (2016) have recently used "think aloud" protocols to explore and develop reflection in rugby league coaches. Using this form of intervention linked to experiential learning could support wider-coach learning.

6.5 Concluding thoughts

According to Lyle (2011) there are cultural assumptions associated with the term coaching; therefore practitioners need to be aware of role responsibilities, and elements in the coaching process that influence practice. However, due to the tacit nature of internal orientations, difficulties arise when exploring perceptions coaches' hold. How actions are defined is dependent on the coach's ability to make sense of their environment, rather than employ practices that are based on unquestioned assumptions (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b). To an extent, exploring the way in which community youth sport coaches' frame their role, has asked more questions, than it has given answers. As framing is a tacit act, and reliant on

individual interpretation (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b), of paramount importance is giving coaches sufficient evidence about *"what good practice looks like"* and appropriate learning experiences on which base decisions. There needs to be recognition that role frames are multi-faceted entities that provide boundaries, but are open to interpretation and bias. But they present community youth coaches with a cognitive structure that according to Schön (1983, 1991) acts as a scaffolding to support practice.

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Appendix A:

Sports Coach Role Questionnaire

An exploratory study into perceived coach roles in sport

Participant Information & Consent
Sports Coach Roles Questionnaire

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of the study? The purpose of this study is to explore issues associated with perceived coaching roles across sport in the UK. The study will also provide baseline data for subsequent research.

Why have I been chosen? You have been chosen because you are an active coach who works with, or volunteers their time to develop individuals/children/performers across all levels of the coaching spectrum (local Participation through to High Performance).

Do I have to take part? It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. A decision to withdraw at any time, or a decision not to take part, will not affect your rights in any way.

What will happen to me if I take part? If you decide to take part, you will be asked to sign the consent form and complete information about yourself, your coaching and 3 simple questionnaires.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part? There are no dangers, disadvantages or risks.

What if something goes wrong? If you wish to complain or have any concerns about any aspect of the way you have been approached or treated during the course of this study, please contact Professor Ken Green, Head of Department, Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Chester, Parkgate Road, Chester, CH1 4BJ, 01244 513426. If you are harmed by taking part in this research project, there are no special compensation arrangements. If you are harmed due to someone's negligence (but not otherwise), then you may have grounds for legal action, but you may have to pay for this.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential? Information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Only the researcher and project leader carrying out the research will have access to such information.

What will happen to the results of the research study? The results will be written up into a student research project, which forms part of a PhD. and, possibly, a research paper that will be submitted to an academic peer-reviewed journal. Individuals who participate will not be identified in any subsequent report or publication.

Who is organising and funding the research? The research is organised and conducted by a student undertaking a Research Degree at the Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences at the University of Chester. Funding for the project comes from Liverpool John Moores University, where the primary researcher is employed.

Who may I contact for further information? If you would like more information about the research before you decide whether or not you would be willing to take part, please contact:

Gus Ryrie (Researcher)

School of Sport, Dance and Outdoor Education (Liverpool John Moores University)

Telephone Number: (0151) 2315296

Dr Moira Lafferty (Supervisor)

Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Chester

University Telephone Number: (01244) 513438

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason and without my care or legal rights being affected. ☐

3. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Participant:	**Date**	**Signature:**
Name of Researcher:	**Date:**	**Signature:**

Coach Role Questionnaire

Please complete the following section in full, by either circling the answer relating to you or filling in the box provided.

Section 1: Personal Information

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Age:

16 – 25	26 - 35	36-45	46-55	56-65	66+

3. Postcode:

4. Email Address (Optional):

Section 2: About you're coaching

5. Thinking about your coaching, can you please tick the boxes below that relate o the type of coaching that you undertake (Please tick all that apply):

Unpaid (Voluntary)	
Paid part-time (Less than 30 hours paid work per week)	
Paid full-time (Over than 30 hours paid work per week)	

6. What is your coaching job title (i.e. no title, volunteer coach; head coach; Community Sports Coach (CSCS); NGB Coach; School Coach; Academy Coach; High Performance Coach etc?)

7. Please list the sport(s) that you coach:

8. On average, how often have you coached in the last 12 months, or, if applicable in the last season? (Please tick one answer only):

Almost every working day	
At least once a week	
At least once a month	
At least once every six months	
At least once a year	

9. On average, how many hours per week do you typically undertake the following coaching activities for? (Please enter hours in boxes):

Coach Preparation	
Coach Delivery	
Coach Administration	
Coach Education and Continuous Professional Development	
Other Coach Related Hours	
Total Coach Related Hours	

10. Do you have an up-to-date National Governing Body recognised coaching qualification?

Yes	No

11. Please provide information on your **highest or main** National Governing Body Coaching Qualification (enter details into the box provided):

Awarding National Governing Body	Qualification Name	Qualification Level

12. In addition to your qualifications, have you undertaken any other continuous professional development (CPD) since you began coaching?

Yes	No

13. Have you undertaken any continuous professional development within the past 12 months?

Yes	No

14. Please indicate which type(s) of continuous professional development you have undertaken. (Please tick all that apply)

Workshop/Training Event/Course	
Personal Development Planning	
FE/HE Qualifications	
Coaching Conferences	
Applied Practice	
Multi-media Learning	
Online Learning	
Distance Learning	
Mentoring Opportunity	
Observing/Working with other coaches	
Other (please specify below)	

Section 3: Coach Confidence

Coaching confidence refers to the extent to which coaches believe that they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes*. Think about how confident you are as a coach. Rate your confidence for each of the items below.

***The term athlete is generic and as such could be replaced with player/performer/child.**

How confident are you in your ability to…..

	Not at all Confident									**Extremely Confident**
1. maintain confidence in your athletes?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. recognise opposing team's strengths during competition?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. mentally prepare athletes for game/meet strategies?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. understand competitive strategies?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. instil an attitude of good moral character?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. build the self-esteem of your athletes?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. demonstrate the skills of your sport?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. adapt to different game/meet situations?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. recognise opposing team's weakness during competition?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. motivate your athletes?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. make critical decisions during competition?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. build team cohesion?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. instil an attitude of fair play among your athletes?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. coach individual athletes on technique?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. build self-confidence of your athletes?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. develop athletes' abilities?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. maximise your team's strengths during competition?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. recognise talent in athletes?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. promote good sportsmanship?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. detect skill errors?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21. adjust your game/meet strategy to fit your team's talent?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. teach the skills of your sport?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. build team confidence?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. instil an attitude of respect for others?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Section 4: Coach Motivation Scale

The Coach Motivation scale examines the possible motives you may have for coaching. Think about what motivates you to coach. Examine the questions and highlight how true or untrue you feel the question is in relation to your motives.

I coach sport ……

	Not at all true to me						**Very true for me**
1. because it's fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. because the work is interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. because I find coaching exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. because I like the challenge of coaching	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. because I enjoy the thrill of the competitive situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. because it makes me happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. because the pay is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. because the benefits associated with my coaching job are good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. because I like the prestige associated with my coaching job are good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. because I like being in charge of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. because the 'perks' of the job are good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. because I enjoy the interaction with the athletes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. because I feel/receive pressure from others to continue to coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. because I like developing young athletes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. because I like working with kids and young people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. because I'm good at it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. because coaching is what I was educated to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. because there is always something new to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. because I like interacting with other coaches and trainers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. because I like meeting and talking to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. because coaching and sport are an important part of British culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 5: Coach Role Questionnaire

The Coach Role Questionnaire explores issues associated with your role as a coach. Think about your coaching role; examine the questions and mark the response that most accurately represents the extent to which you have experienced stress from each situation described:

	Not applicable	**Never stressful**	**Rarely stressful**	**Sometimes stressful**	**Often stressful**	**Almost always stressful**
1. Coping with the number of expectations of my role						
2. Thinking about the amount of work I have to do interferes with how well it gets done						
3. Coping with the complexity of my job expectations						
4. Having job demands interfere with other activities of personal importance (family, leisure etc.)						
5. Having inadequate resources to meet role expectations						
6. Not having sufficient time to meet role expectations						
7. Feeling torn between the demands of the profession and those of the organisation						
8. Dealing with programme and/or role changes						
9. Feeling pressure due to limited availability of funding						
10. Receiving insufficient recognition for my coaching expertise						
11. Receiving insufficient recognition for associated activities (administration, planning etc.)						
12. Feeling unable to satisfy conflicting demands of my work related constituencies (i.e. administration, colleagues, organisation and athletes)						
13. Feeling pressured to maintain coaching competence or practice without the time to realistically do so						
14. Feeling pressure for better job performance over and above what I believe to be reasonable						
15. Having to participate in work related activities outside regular working hours in order to meet job expectations						

16. Feeling that my progress on the job is not what it could or should be						
17. Coping with changing individual or organisational role expectations						
18. Feeling pressured to do more work than I currently am						
19. Feeling that the goals and values of the organisation don't match with my personal goals and values						
20. Feeling I was deployed primarily to coach, but I am evaluated on the basis of other role expectations						
21. Feeling that other role expectations take time away from my coaching						
22. Feeling physically drained from coaching at the end of the day						
23. Feeling that there is a lack of consensus among the athletes, colleagues and other associated individuals towards my role						
24. Feeling that I have insufficient knowledge and skills to meet the demands of my role						
25. Feeling that I have not kept abreast of current developments in my field						
26. Having to coach subject matter or sports that don't match my background or expertise						
27. Feeling that I do not have sufficient skills to be an effective coach						
28. Being concerned that I do not have sufficient coaching experience						

Appendix B: Sports Coach Roles Questionnaire Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of the study? The purpose of this study is to explore issues associated with perceived coaching roles across sport in the UK. The study will also provide baseline data for subsequent research.

Why have I been chosen? You have been chosen because you are an active coach who works with, or volunteers their time to develop individuals/children/performers across all levels of the coaching spectrum (local Participation through to High Performance).

Do I have to take part? It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. A decision to withdraw at any time, or a decision not to take part, will not affect your rights in any way.

What will happen to me if I take part? If you decide to take part, you will be asked to sign the consent form and complete information about yourself, your coaching and 3 simple questionnaires.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part? There are no dangers, disadvantages or risks.

What if something goes wrong? If you wish to complain or have any concerns about any aspect of the way you have been approached or treated during the course of this study, please contact Professor Ken Green, Head of Department, Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Chester, Parkgate Road, Chester, CH1 4BJ, 01244 513426. If you are harmed by taking part in this research project, there are no special compensation arrangements. If you are harmed due to someone's negligence (but not otherwise), then you may have grounds for legal action, but you may have to pay for this.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential? All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Only the researcher and project leader carrying out the research will have access to such information.

What will happen to the results of the research study? The results will be written up into a student research project, which forms part of a PhD. and, possibly, a research paper that will be submitted to an academic peer-reviewed journal. Individuals who participate will not be identified in any subsequent report or publication.

Who is organising and funding the research? The research is organised and conducted by a student undertaking a Research Degree at the Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences at the University of Chester. Funding for the project comes from Liverpool John Moores University, where the primary researcher is employed.

Who may I contact for further information? If you would like more information about the research before you decide whether or not you would be willing to take part, please contact: **Gus Ryrie**

What if participants have any questions?

If you have any questions about our project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Gus Ryrie (Researcher)
School of Sport, Dance and Outdoor Education (Liverpool John Moores University)
Telephone Number: (0151) 2315296

Dr Moira Lafferty (Supervisor)
Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences, University of Chester
University Telephone Number: (01244) 513438

Appendix C: Organisation Information Sheet

Title of Project: An exploratory study into perceived coach roles in sport

Name of Researcher: Gus Ryrie

To whom it may concern

Your organisation is being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it involves. Please take time to read the following information. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you want your organisation to be involved in the project.

1. What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of this study is to explore issues associated with perceived coaching roles across sport in the UK. The study will also provide baseline data for subsequent research examining in depth, sports coach roles, philosophies and practice. The information collected will be used to evaluate current sport practices and examine current coaching views.

2. **Does my Organisation have to take part?**
No. It is up to you to decide whether or not you want your Organisation to take part. If you decide that your Organisation cannot take part at this time rest assured that this will not affect your organisation in any way.

3. What will happen to the coaches if your Organisation is part of the project?
Coaches who provide written informed consent for them to participate will be complete a questionnaire. In some cases, a researcher will explain how to fill in the questionnaire and will be there while coaches complete them, in case there is a need to ask about anything they are not sure of. Another model of delivery is sending the questionnaire via email; again, with detailed instructions for the participants.
Completing the questionnaires should take no longer than 30 minutes. All of these measures will take place at mutually agreed times at appropriate locations.

4. Are there any risks / benefits involved?
There are no risks involved in participating. We anticipate that the organisations who take part will find the results of benefit as they will provide information about the role perceptions of the coaches within your organisation.

5. Will the Organisation and coach participation in the study be kept private?
All of the results of the project will only be viewed by the researchers. At no stage will any of the participants' details be used when the findings are reported.

Contact Details of Researcher

Gus Ryrie
Liverpool John Moores University
Faculty of Education, Community and Leisure
I.M. Marsh Campus, Barkhill Road,
Liverpool,
L17 6BD
Office Tel: 0151 231 5296
Fax: 0151 231 5357 Email: A.Ryrie@ljmu.ac.uk

Appendix D: Study two - Organisation Information Sheet

Sport coaching within a community setting: How do 'model' community sport coaches define their role

To whom it may concern

Your organisation is being invited to take part in a research project. Before you decide it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it involves. Please take time to read the following information. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you want your organisation to be involved in the project.

Thank you for reading this

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of this study is to explore issues associated with perceived coaching roles across sport in the UK. The data collected will examining in depth, sports coach roles, philosophies and practice. The information collected will be used to evaluate current sport practices and examine current coaching views.

Does my Organisation have to take part?

No. It is up to you to decide whether or not you want your Organisation to take part. If you decide that your Organisation cannot take part at this time rest assured that this will not affect your organisation in any way.

What will happen to the coaches if your Organisation is part of the project?

Coaches who provide written informed consent for them to participate will be complete the research over a nine-month period. This will consist of 3 components, two interviews, three in-situ observations and a one week reflective diaries. All the information will then be used to examine their role.

Are there any risks/benefits involved?

There are no risks involved in participating. We anticipate that the organisations who take part will find the results of benefit as they will provide information about the role perceptions of the coaches within your organisation.

What if something goes wrong?

If you wish to complain or have any concerns about any aspect of the way you have been approached or treated during the course of this study, please contact Professor Sarah Andrew, Dean of the Faculty of Applied Sciences, University of Chester, Parkgate Road, Chester, CH1 4BJ, 01244 513055.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

All information which is collected during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential so that only the researcher carrying out the research will have access to such information.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be written up into a dissertation for my final project of my PhD. Individuals who participate will not be identified in any subsequent report or publication.

Who is organising the research?

The research is conducted as part of a PhD within the Department of Psychology at the University of Chester. The study is organised with supervision from the department, by Gus Ryrie, a PhD student.

Who may I contact for further information?
If you would like more information about the research before you decide whether or not you would be willing to take part, please contact:

Gus Ryrie
Senior Lecturer in Sport Coaching
Liverpool John Moores University
IM Marsh Campus
Liverpool
L17 6BD
Office Tel: 0151 231 5296
Fax: 0151 231 5357 Email: A.Ryrie@ljmu.ac.uk

Thank you for your interest in this research.

Appendix E: Studies Two Participant Information Sheet

Sports Coach Role Interview

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will be involved. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of the study? The purpose of this study is to explore issues associated with perceived coaching roles across sport in the UK. The study will provide in-depth information regarding the perceptions coaches hold within their roles and examine the way in which they define their role.

Why have I been chosen? You have been chosen because you have been identified as an outstanding coach recognised for their contribution to elite/participant development with a proven record in your field.

Do I have to take part? It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part you will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason. A decision to withdraw at any time, or a decision not to take part, will not affect your rights in any way.

What will happen to me if I take part? If you decide to take part, you will be contacted to arrange an acceptable time, date and location to undertake the research. You will be asked to sign the consent form and undertake **one** recorded interview at the agreed time and location which will last no more than 60 minutes.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part? There are no dangers, disadvantages or risks.

What if something goes wrong? If you wish to complain or have any concerns about any aspect of the way you have been approached or treated during the course of this study, please contact Professor Sarah Andrew, Dean, School of Applied and Health Sciences, University of Chester, Parkgate Road, CH1 4BJ, 01244 51100. If you are harmed by taking part in this research project, there are no special compensation arrangements. If you are harmed due to someone's negligence (but not otherwise), then you may have grounds for legal action, but you may have to pay for this.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential? All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Only the researcher and project leader carrying out the research will have access to such information.

What will happen to the results of the research study? The results will be written up into a student research project, which forms part of a PhD. and, possibly, a research paper that will be submitted to an academic peer-reviewed journal. Individuals who participate will not be identified in any subsequent report or publication.

Who is organising and funding the research? The research is organised and conducted by a student undertaking a Research Degree at the Department of Sport and Exercise Sciences at the University of Chester. Funding for the project comes from Liverpool John Moores University, where the primary researcher is employed.

Who may I contact for further information? If you would like more information about the research before you decide whether or not you would be willing to take part, please contact: **Gus Ryrie**

What if participants have any questions?

If you have any questions about our project, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Gus Ryrie (Researcher)

School of Education, Leisure and Sport Studies (Liverpool John Moores University)

Telephone Number: (0151) 2315296

Email: A.Ryrie@ljmu.ac.uk

Dr Moira Lafferty (Supervisor)

Department of Psychology, University of Chester

University Telephone Number: (01244) 513438

Appendix F: Informed Consent Form – Study two

Title of Project: Sport coaching within a community setting: How do 'model' community sport coaches define their role?

Name of Researcher: Gus Ryrie

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. ☐

4. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason and without my legal rights being affected. ☐

5. I agree that the interview for this study can be audio taped. ☐

4. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Participant	Date	Signature

Researcher	Date	Signature

1 for participant; 1 for researcher

Appendix G: Study Three - Participant and Organisation Information sheet

Sport coaching within a community setting: How do 'model' community sport coaches define their role?

You are being invited as a participant or as an organisation to take part in a research study. Before you decide, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Thank you for reading this.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study for a PhD entitled 'sport coaching within a community setting: How do 'model' community sport coaches define their role, aims to examine through a series of case studies, the manner in which community sports coaches operate and identify the key attributes coaches need to work effectively in this context. The objective is to examine the environmental conditions and personal views community sport coaches hold with regard to youth sport

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen, as your organisation and coaches operate in one of the following community settings (1) community coach operating in a school (2) a coach operating in a community club (3) a community coach operating for a local authority sport development unit and (4) a community coach operating for a national governing body of sport.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you as an organisation, or as an individual coach to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form, either giving your permission as an organisation for members of your coaching team to participate, or as an individual coach to carry out the research. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. A decision to withdraw at any time, or a decision not to take part, will not affect you in any way.

What will happen to me if I take part?

Coaches and organisations that provide written informed consent for individuals to participate will be asked to complete the research over a nine-month period. This will consist of 3 components, two interviews, three in-situ observations and two x one week reflective diaries for individual coaches to complete. Organisations will also be asked to supply background information surrounding the role and context of the coaching that they undertake. All the information will then be used to examine your coaching role. Due to the nature of your role, the research will take place at mutually appropriate times, which meet your needs.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no risks involved in participating, as all the research will take place in safe environments, or observations within your working environment.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

We anticipate that the coaches and organisations who take part in the study will find the results of benefit as they will provide information about their coach behaviour and role, which can be used as a development tool in your coaching.

What if something goes wrong?

If you wish to complain or have any concerns about any aspect of the way you have been approached or treated during the course of this study, please contact Professor Sarah Andrew, Dean of the Faculty of Applied Sciences, University of Chester, Parkgate Road, Chester, CH1 4BJ, 01244 513055.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential so that only the researcher carrying out the research will have access to such information.

What will happen to the results of the research study?
The results will be written up into a dissertation for my final project of my PhD. Individuals who participate will not be identified in any subsequent report or publication.

Who is organising the research?

The research is conducted as part of a PhD within the Department of Psychology at the University of Chester. The study is organised with supervision from the department, by Gus Ryrie, a PhD student

Who may I contact for further information?

If you or your organisation would like more information about the research before you decide whether or not you would be willing to take part, please contact:

Gus Ryrie
PhD. Student (Researcher)
Tel: 0151 231 5296
Email: a.ryrie@ljmu.ac.uk

Or

Dr Moira Lafferty (Supervisor)
HCPC Registered Sport & Exercise Psychologist.
Department of Psychology
University of Chester
Tel: 01244 513438
E-mail: m.lafferty@chester.ac.uk

Thank you for your interest in this research.

Appendix H:

Interview guides (Studies two and three)

Sport coaching within a community setting: How do community sport coaches define their role?

Interview Guide

Part 1: Initial Interview (Studies two and three)

Section 1: Introduction (Not Recorded)

Good morning/afternoon, my name is Gus Ryrie; I am studying for a PhD with the Department of Sport Sciences at the University of Chester. Firstly, thank you for giving up your valuable time and agreeing to participate in this study. As you are aware, this is one part of a number of parts of a case study that I will be conducting with you surrounding your role as a community sport coach. Within this study, I will be talking to community youth sport coaches to examine what they feel their role is within the coaching process. More specifically it aims to examine the manner in which coaches actually define their coaching role. Therefore, the overall purpose of this study is to better understand how sports coaches come to identify what they feel is important within their role and any factors or issues that influence those decisions. The idea for this study has come from previous research which has looked at this area in North America, but I want to investigate any links, patterns or themes highlighted by coaches in the UK. I want to try and understand a little more about this area by using interviews, observations, background information and reflection.

The information in this study will be used in two ways: the information will be used for my PhD. Thesis and the results may be published in scientific journals so that other sport scientists, coaches, and National Governing Bodies of Sport can benefit from them.

I would like to emphasise that your interview information will remain completely confidential. Although, I may want to use selected quotes from the interviews in order to illustrate important ideas, these will remain strictly anonymous, and I will ensure that your identity is protected. I am using a digital recorder to get complete and accurate information, as well as making the interview process more efficient. The recording is also necessary so I am able to make a typed transcript for later scrutiny and reference.

As a participant in this study you have several very definite rights. First, your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary, and you are free to decline to answer any questions or to stop the interview at any point. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions that I will be asking. I want to learn and benefit from your experience and expertise so I can better understand what you feel is involved in coaching. I hope, therefore, that you will answer the questions in a candid and straightforward way. If there are any you do not feel comfortable answering I would rather you declined to comment than to tell me what you think I or others want to hear. Therefore, if you would prefer not to answer a question please state "no comment", and no further questions related to that topic will be asked.

In addition, if you have any questions as we go along please ask them; if at any time you do not understand what I am asking, please gain clarification.

Section 2: Demographic Information

Orientation Statements: There are 2 things I would like you to keep in mind throughout the interview process.

Firstly, I will be asking you about your experience as coach. I know you are still coaching, so I may be asking you to think back and recall information further back in your coaching career. Since you may have to think back in time, you might not be able to immediately remember some things. Take your time as you recall the past; pauses are fine. If you cannot remember after trying to think back, then just let me know, but please do not guess. Secondly, I am interested in your overall experiences as a sports coach, both in and out of competition. So in your answers you can draw on any and all aspects of your experience. This could include items in and out of the coaching environment that are related to your coaching experience such as training, relationships, interactions with other people or anything else that you deem to be important to your experience that may well relate to the issues that we will be discussing. At the end of the interview there will be an opportunity for you to add anything that you felt was important and not covered in the interview.

Do you have any questions now about what I have talked about so far?

Introduction Questions: The first section will involve initial generic questions to ascertain descriptive statistics (age, gender, coaching level, length of time coaching and coaching history etc.) and to allow the participants to settle into the process.

We will start with a few general questions to get you into the flow of the interview, by discussing your involvement in coaching:

1. How long have you been coaching?
2. In terms of your coaching, can you tell me what sport you coach in, your level of coaching qualification and a brief history of you (career) so far?
3. What is a typical week for you in terms of coaching (e.g. amount & time involved):Probe: FuII time, part time or volunteer? Specific tasks; inside and (possibly outside) coaching
4. Do you enjoy coaching at this level? Probe: If yes/no, why?

Following this, a series of questions with probes will be asked

Section 3: Main Body

Question 1 -What would you define as your role in coaching?

The aim of this question is to explore issues surrounding the participants' understanding of their role. Evidence suggests that in order to be effective, sports coaches have to deal with a number complex interactions (Abraham & Collins, 1998; Bowes & Jones, 2006; Côté & Gilbert, 2009) that affect what they do (for example, working as part of a team, competition pressures, the impact of the coach-athlete relationship). In addition, research suggests that this is influenced by the context in which they operate (Côté, Young, North & Duffy, 2007; Gilbert, Cote & Mallet, 2006; Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, Stephenson & Jowett, 2009).

Probes: Can you explain the structure in which you operate? Does the role that you undertake rely on you working in partnership with others? Does this have an impact on your ability to carry out tasks effectively? What are the positive parts of your role? Are there any negative parts in relation to your role?

References

Abraham, A., & Collins, D. (1998) Examining and extending research in coach development. *Quest,* 50, 59-79.

Bowes, I. & Jones, R.L. (2006) Working on the edge of chaos: Understanding coaching as a complex interpersonal system. *The Sports Psychologist*, 20, 235-245.

Côté, J. & Gilbert, W. (2009). An integrative definition of coaching effectiveness and expertise. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 4(3), 307-323.

Côté, J., Young, B., North, J., & Duffy, P. (2007). Towards a definition of excellence in sport coaching. *International Journal of Coaching Science*, 1(1), 3-17.

Gilbert, W., Cote, J., & Mallet, C. (2006) Developmental paths and activities of successful sports coaches. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching,* 1(1), 69-76.

Gilbert, W. & Trudel, P (2001) Learning to coach through experience: Reflection in model youth sport coaches. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education,* 21, 16-34.

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Question 2 -Within your coaching role, what parts of the process do you think are most important?

The aim of this question is to examine the perceptions, thoughts and feelings elicited by sports coaches in order to ascertain and develop a greater understanding how they 'frame' their role. Role framing is defined as "the ways in which they [practitioners] construct the reality in which they function" (Schon, 1983, p. 310), suggesting that role frames strongly influence a practitioners reflection (Knowles, Tyler, Gilbourne, & Eubank, 2006; Knowles, Gilbourne, Borrie, & Nevill, 2001) as only those issues that are consistent with their role frame components will be addressed. Furthermore, Schon, (1983) suggests role frames are considered to be relatively stable over time and tend to be self-reinforcing, arguing that developing an awareness of personal role frames is critical for professional growth (Gilbert & Trudel, 1999, PERRI 6, 2005). Gilbert and Trudel (2004b) suggest that Schon's work (1983, 1991) is perhaps the most comprehensive example of research on role formation and framing with model practitioners. Studies carried out by Gilbert and Trudel (2004b), based upon a two year multiple-case study research design in the USA and Canada highlighted that on average, the coaches' role frame comprised two boundary components and nine internal components.

Probes: Why do you see these factors as important? Do you rank the items in order of preference/importance? Are performers aware of the factors that you think are important? Do you articulate this? Look at key areas such as player development, competition, winning, wider objectives (educational; athlete development; sport used to tackle social issues; working with different age groups etc.)

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Question 3 - Do you feel that your personal philosophy surrounding coaching affects what you do or how you go about it?

The aim of this question is to examine in further detail any factors that may influence or impact on the way in which coaches 'frame' their role. Evidence suggests that the 'development of a coach philosophy should be grounded in developmental psychology, particularly for coaches involved in youth sport (Nash, Sproule & Horton, 2008, p. 54). Research also highlights that a coach philosophy is based on beliefs, formed as a performer and as a coach, with factors such as educational background and life experiences (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b; Irwin, Hanton & Kerwin, 2004, Rogers, 2004) impacting on what views individuals hold. Nash, Sproule and Horton (2008) also suggest that coaches can be influenced by beliefs and practices of the organisation, their own knowledge and beliefs and the relevance of their philosophy to their own role.

Probes: Do you articulate this philosophy to the participants/athletes, wider partners within your coaching? Has it changed over time? If so, what are the factors that brought about the change? Has any change impacted on how you coach? What influences impact on this?

References

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Question 4 - Why do you coach?

Although the question appears to be fairly self-explanatory, Bowes and Jones (2006) argue that debate still surrounds what constitutes sport coaching and more specifically, what defines coaching excellence. Research suggests (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac, 2003) that over time, the role or roles undertaken by the coach have become more complex. Côté, Bradley, North and Duffy (2007) highlight that coaching roles have evolved to become more pedagogical, more technical and therefore coaches are required to develop an increased set of competencies to be classed as effective. Evidence suggests that there is an important distinction in the skills and attributes coaches need based upon the context in which they work (Lemyre, Trudel & Durand-Bush, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006). Therefore, the question looks to identify the factors that might influence how this might affect their role.

Probes: What motivates you? Is it an important aspect of your life? What are the benefits (or negatives) associated with coaching? Do any external factors affect what or why you coach?

References

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Part 2: Pre and Post Observation (Study three only)

The aim of this form of questioning, is twofold (1) ensure that participants are aware of the processes involved with the observation process and (2) provide an effective environment that is conducive to effective research.

Pre-Observation Interviews

First and foremost, the pre-observation interview serves as a mechanism to:

1. Create a non-threatening environment/make it a part of the coaches learning experience
2. Negotiate and communicate with coaches about who is being observed
3. Effectively prepare them for the process
4. Explain the procedures involved with the use of CBAS to the participants

Post-Observation Interviews

Within the post observation interview, the aim is to identify any issues or key points linked to the participants' role that has been identified within the observation, using a series of questions, detail the processes and actions carried out by the coach. This will always be a coach directed activity.

Questions:

1. **What went well within your session?** (Participant to respond)
2. **I interpret this as meaning...** (Researcher to relate back, to check for understanding)
3. **What did not work so well within the session?** (Participant to respond)
4. **I interpret this as meaning...** (Researcher to relate back, to check for understanding)
5. **What you could have done to improve your session?** (Participant to respond)
6. **I interpret this as meaning...** (Researcher to relate back, to check for understanding)
7. **Are there any other issues you want to raise in relation to this session?**

Key points are to ensure that participants are:

Pre-session meeting/interview

- A shared understanding
- Clarifying expectations
- Establishing priorities
- Agreeing goals

Session

- Normality
- Interaction depends on: event, stage of learning of the coach, level of acquaintance

Post-session interview/reflection

- Quality of communication
- Coach leads
- Beware of advising and fixing

Key References

Abraham, A., Collins, D. & Martindale, R. (2006) The Coaching schematic: Validation through expert coach consensus. *Journal of Sport Sciences,* 24(6), 549-564.

Gilbert, W., Côté, J. & Mallet, C. (2006) Developmental paths and activities of successful sports coaches. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching*, 1(1), 69-76.

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Appendix I: Pictorial representation of CBAS, uploaded onto a Dartfish EasyTag© panel on a Samsung Galaxy tablet

Identified within the panel are the results from one of the observed coaching sessions in study three. Detailed on the panel are the total events, session time and number of events per category.